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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

AT THE

TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN NASHVILLE, TENN.
MAY 23–29, 1894

EDITED BY
ISABEL C. BARROWS
Official Reporter of the Conference

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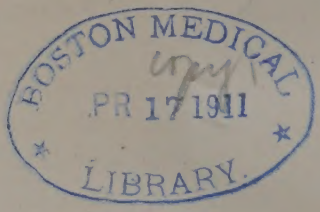

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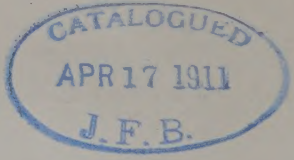

PREFACE.

The twenty-first session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Nashville, Tenn., in May of the present year. A fair number of delegates attended, though there were fewer from Southern States than had been hoped for. The arrangements for section meetings were admirable; and many such meetings were held, which were of great interest. Brief papers were read, and there was ample time for discussion. Many of these papers are included in the body of the Report, along with the papers which were read in the general sessions. At the close of the chapter entitled "Minutes and Discussions" will be found a condensed report of the section meetings on Child-saving. It was understood that the secretaries of the separate sections would furnish such abstracts in every case. This is the only one that has been received by the editor.

The subjects treated by the Conference vary little from year to year. A noticeable feature in this volume is a full chapter on "Training Schools for Nurses." It is perhaps indicative of the spirit of the time that, while there is no chapter devoted to prisons, large space is given to Child-saving and to Reformatories. The admirable paper on "The Duty of the State to the Insane," by Dr. E. N. Brush, is sure to attract attention, as will the paper on "Provision for Epileptics," by Hon. W. P. Letchworth.

A chapter on the "Instruction in Sociology in Institutions of Learning" hints at a new department, for this promises to be a subject that will henceforth receive much more attention than it has in the past. It is hoped that students and

teachers of institutions of learning and those whose relation to the subject is only theoretical will by means of this conference come into closer contact with the practical men and women who are at work along the various lines of social reform, and that, on the other hand, the practical workers will receive inspiration and wise suggestion from meeting and hearing men who are devoting themselves to the study of the science of social life.

In addition to the usual indexes and lists of State officers this Report furnishes the names and localities of all the State institutions in the United States, so far as they could be secured. Several statistical tables give valuable information as to the population of such institutions and the cost of support.

Within a few years some States have begun to hold annual conferences for the study of their own charities and corrections. An attempt was made to secure the programmes of these local conferences for record and comparison. So far as these could be obtained, they are printed in this volume.

Each year makes the Report of the National Conference of Charities and Correction of more interest to the student; and, as these various statistics are more accurately compiled, the value of the book will be much increased. It has already become indispensable to charity workers and students of sociology.

This Report and such back numbers as are still in print may be ordered of the Treasurer, John M. Glenn, Glenn Building, Baltimore, Md., at the price of $1.50 per volume, with discounts for more than ten Reports.

The next meeting of the Conference will be in New Haven, Conn., in May, 1895, Mr. Robert Treat Paine, of Boston, President; H. H. Hart, of St. Paul, Minn., Permanent Secretary.

BOSTON, MASS., Nov. 15, 1894.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PORTRAIT OF PRESIDENT LUCIUS M. STORRS.

PREFACE iii

TABLE OF CONTENTS v

ORGANIZATION FOR 1895 ix

I. PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS 1

II. STATE BOARDS OF CHARITIES.

"The Value of State Boards," by LEVI L. BARBOUR 9

"Boards of State Charities as Boards of Control," by Gen. R. BRINKERHOFF 15

Discussion on State Boards 278

III. CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

Report of the Committee on Charity Organization, by J. W. WALK, J. F. JACKSON, P. W. AYRES, C. D. KELLOGG . . 19

"The Situation in New York City during the Winter of 1893–94," by CHARLES D. KELLOGG 21

"A Winter's Work in St. Paul," by JAMES F. JACKSON . . . 30

"Work in Charleston, S.C.," by Mrs. M. A. RHETT 34

"The Winter in Pittsburg," by R. D. MCGONNIGLE 36

"The Winter in Louisville, Ky.," by RANDOLPH H. BLAIN . . 42

"The Emergency Work in Boston," by WILLIAM P. FOWLER . 45

"The Bethel Associated Charities," by HENRY M. RAYMOND . 50

"Denver's Plan," by IZETTA GEORGE 55

"A Successful Experiment in utilizing Unemployed Labor," by J. G. ROSENGARTEN 58

"How Philadelphia dealt with the Extraordinary Distress of the Winter of 1893–94," by JAMES W. WALK 63

Discussion on Charity Organization 301

IV. SOCIOLOGY.

"Instruction in Sociology in Institutions of Learning," by DANIEL FULCOMER 67

Statistics of Instruction in Sociology 80

"The Relation of Statistics to Social Science," by WALTER F. WILLCOX 86

Hull House as a Sociological Laboratory 313

V. Training Schools for Nurses.

"Theory and Practice," by Agnes S. Brennan 94
"District Nursing," by Edith S. Brent 97
"Mission Training Schools," by Linda Richards 100
"Trained Nurses in Hospitals for the Insane," by Marion E. Smith 102
"District Nurses," by Julia C. Lathrop 340

VI. Public Relief.

"Outdoor Relief: Conditions, Methods, and Statistics," by the Committee: C. R. Henderson, R. R. Caldwell, Charles Parrott, R. D. McGonnigle, S. Simon 106
Discussion on Charity Organization 301

VII. Child-saving.

"The Removal of Children from Almshouses," by Homer Folks 119
"The Removal of Children from Almshouses in the State of New York," by Hon. W. P. Letchworth 132
"The Boarding System for Neglected Children," by Miss C. H. Pemberton 137
"Terms on which Children should be placed in Families," by Herbert W. Lewis 140
"State Care for Dependent Children," by G. A. Merrill . . 146
"Lessons of the Eleventh Census concerning Children in Almshouses," by Rev. F. H. Wines 324
"Day Nurseries," by N. S. Rosenau 333

VIII. Reformatories.

"General Culture in State Schools," by Walter Lindley, M.D. 149
"Our Work, and the Outlook," by John T. Mallalieu . . . 156
"Woman's Influence in Juvenile Reformatories," by Mrs. Lucy M. Sickels 164
Discussion on Juvenile Reformatories 288
"An Ideal Home for Discharged Prisoners," by Mrs. Agnes D'Arcambal 326

IX. The Feeble-minded and Epileptics.

"The Education and Custody of the Imbecile," by Alice J. Mott 168
"Manual Training for the Feeble-minded," by Isabel C. Barrows 179
"Provision for Epileptics," by Hon. W. P. Letchworth . . 187
Discussion on Feeble-minded 308

X. The Insane.

"Duty of the State to the Insane," by Edward N. Brush, M.D. 201
Discussion on Insanity 292

XI. Conference Sermon.

"Bear ye One Another's Burdens," by Rev. Collins Denny . . . 214

XII. Reports from States.

Report of Committee, by J. P. Byers 226
Alabama 229
Alaska Territory 232
California 233
Canada, Manitoba 233
Canada, Ontario 234
Colorado 235
Connecticut 236
Delaware 237
District of Columbia 238
Idaho 238
Indiana 238
Indian Territory 239
Iowa 239
Kansas 240
Louisana 240
Maine 241
Maryland 242
Massachusetts 243
Michigan 244
Minnesota 247
Montana 248
Nebraska 249
Nevada 249
New Hampshire 250
New Jersey 250
New York 251
North Carolina 251
North Dakota 251
Ohio 252
Pennsylvania 253
Rhode Island 253
South Carolina 254
South Dakota 254
Tennessee 254
Texas 255
Utah 255
Washington 257
West Virginia 257
Wisconsin 258
Wyoming 258

List of State Institutions 259

Number and Cost of Delinquents and Dependants. . . . 270

XIII. Minutes and Discussions.
Secretary's Report 274
The Memphis Session 347

XIV. Child-saving.
Sectional Meetings 348

Treasurer's Statement 356
Inventory of Back Reports 357
List of Members 358
Non-members Registered 363
Organization of Conference of 1894 364
Local Committee 367
Officers and Members of State Boards 369
State Conferences 373
Index of Writers and Speakers 383
Index of Subjects 384

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RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Preamble.

The National Conference of Charities exists to discuss the problems of charities and correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms. It does not formulate platforms.

I. Membership.

The membership of a Conference shall include:—

(*a*) All past officers of the Conference who have served more than one year.

(*b*) Members and officers of State Boards of Charities or boards of kindred functions.

(*c*) Members of Boards of Management, and officers of public and private charitable and correctional institutions.

(*d*) Members and officers of boards and societies organized for the relief or improvement of the poor, the unfortunate, or the neglected.

(*e*) Persons designated by State or municipal authorities or by the Local Committee.

(*f*) Others especially interested may be enrolled as members, and may share in the discussions, without the privilege of voting.

(*g*) Honorary Members may be elected on recommendation of the Executive Committee.

(*h*) The annual membership fee shall be $2, which shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

(*i*) State Boards of Charities and other societies and institutions subscribing for the Proceedings in quantities shall be entitled to enroll their officers and members as members of this Conference, in proportion to the amount subscribed.

(*j*) The list of annual members shall be printed in the Proceedings, with asterisks marking those in attendance.

II. Officers.

The officers of the Conference shall be a President, one or more Vice-Presidents, a Treasurer, three Secretaries, and an Official Reporter and Editor. Also a Corresponding Secretary for each State and Territory.

These officers (except the Treasurer) shall be elected annually by the Conference for the ensuing year.

The ex-Presidents of the Conference shall be the Counsellors, and shall be members of the Executive Committee.

III. Committees.

The standing committees shall be an Executive Committee, a Local Committee, and a committee on each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference.

The Executive Committee shall consist of the President *ex officio*, of five mem-

bers to be elected by the Conference, and of the Counsellors. This committee shall elect one of its members as treasurer. Six members shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

The chairman of each committee shall have power to fill vacancies, with the approval of the President.

The President, soon after the opening of the Conference, shall appoint a Committee on Organization of the next Conference and a Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting, each consisting of one member from each State and Territory; also a Committee on Resolutions, to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate.

IV. Duties of Officers.

The officers of the Conference shall discharge the duties usually devolving upon such officers.

The President-elect shall be chairman *ex officio* of the Executive Committee, and shall have the supervision of the work of the several committees in preparing for the meeting of the Conference and securing a suitable attendance. He shall have authority to accept resignations and fill vacancies in the list of officers and chairmen of committees.

The first Secretary shall be Secretary of the Executive Committee *ex officio*. He shall conduct the correspondence of the Conference with Committees, Governors, Boards of State Charities, etc., under the direction of the President. He shall direct the work of the other Secretaries during the Conference, and be responsible for correctness of the roll of members,

The Treasurer shall be the custodian of the unsold copies of the Proceedings and of the money received and disbursed in course of their preparation.

The Official Reporter and Editor shall report and edit the Proceedings of the Conference, subject to the direction of the Executive Committee.

The Corresponding Secretaries shall be responsible for the annual reports from their several States. It should be their duty to secure the attendance of representatives from public and private institutions and societies, and the appointment by Governors of State Delegates in those States where there are no State Boards of Charities.

V. Duties of Committees.

The Executive Committee shall be the President's Advisory Board, and shall hold the powers of the Conference in the interim between meetings.

The Local Committee shall make all necessary local arrangements for the meeting, and provide funds for the local expenses, such as hall rent, salary, and expenses of the Reporter, local printing, etc.

The Committee on Subjects shall arrange the programme for the sessions and section meetings assigned to them, subject to the approval of the President.

The committees are required to arrange their programmes so as to give opportunity for free discussion.

No paper shall be presented to the Conference except through the proper committees.

VI. Debates.

In the debates of the Conference each speaker shall be limited to five minutes, except by unanimous consent, and shall not be allowed to speak twice on any one subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

VII. Amendments.

These rules may be suspended or amended at the pleasure of the Conference, but otherwise shall be in force from one year to another.

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I.

President's Address.

ANNUAL ADDRESS OF THE PRESIDENT.

BY LUCIUS C. STORRS.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen, Delegates of the Twenty-first National Conference of Charities and Correction,— Our beloved and lamented McCulloch, in his address at the opening session of our Seventeenth Annual Conference at Baltimore, quoted this line of a very familiar hymn, "This is the place we long have sought." These words seem applicable to this time and place. During the twenty years of the existence of the Conference but four meetings have been held south of the State of Ohio, and each of these four was held in States immediately south of Ohio. The seeming neglect of this portion of our field,— for is not our field the world? — and a seeming indifference to the urgent invitations in the past, are in the seeming only. We were not unmindful of the claims of Nashville. We knew full well that the descendants of the brave Tennesseeans, who at King's Mountain turned the tide of victory in favor of the colonists, possessed the same sturdy qualities of character as they; that by their courage and intelligence they had restored the fortunes which civil strife had wasted; that with confident hearts and strong hands they had utilized the wonderful and various resources which nature has placed within their reach, until agriculture, commerce, and manufacture have brought this beautiful city to a position excelled by no city in the South; and, better than all, that this material growth had not smothered its culture or religion. In this city of almost ninety thousand population there are over one hundred places dedicated to the worship of Jehovah. Within its borders there are educational facilities surpassed by none, and

equalled by few cities of its size, so that Nashville is known as "the Athens of the South." The religion and culture of Nashville have not stopped with the building of churches, public schools, and universities. They have broadened out, and provided love and shelter for the orphan, the insane, and the deaf and dumb. Girls and boys whose lives were cast in adverse circumstances, who started life faced in the wrong direction, are cared for in reformatories, and faced about; and the fallen sister is provided with a place of refuge from the wiles of designing ones, and an opportunity given her to reform. That which is ever true has happened to Nashville. With all the work she is doing, and because she is doing such work, new lines open up to her. Those engaged in the work feel that there are methods whereby it may be improved; and in the hope that this National Conference may be of help to them in new undertakings, and in adopting better methods, Nashville has called to us to meet with her.

We are here in the assurance of receiving the fulfilment of that promise which warmed the wires with its earnestness as it sped over them to us at Chicago: "Nashville wants the Conference of Charities, will give it a hearty Tennessee welcome,"— a welcome proverbially warm even to a white heat, which shall weld acquaintance to friendship, and both to love ere we part.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction is so conducted that, although there may be differences of opinion among its members, and those differences pretty warmly expressed and discussed at times, there is nothing dogmatic. Each speaker has his own message, the expressions of study and experience in a given line, to which he has given his exclusive thought and labor. His message is received, examined, and, if worthy of it, profited by. No one is

> "Without reprieve adjudged to death,
> For want of well pronouncing Shibboleth."

No effort is made to compel any member to agree with any other member except by earnest, fair discussion. Resolutions in such line have ever been repressed or, if not repressed, then smothered and buried in the most loving and approved form by our chief and highly esteemed executioner, Brother Elmore.

As Saint Paul considered that it took all saints to know the breadth, length, and depth and height of the love of God, so we

believe that to no one is it given to know all that is contained in the broad terms charities, correction, and philanthropy. It takes the combined thought, study, and experience of specialists to grasp it all. Therefore, a full and complete knowledge of needs and remedies is sought in the work of the Conference.

This Twenty-first Conference stands with its face to the front. Our last meeting closed the second decade of our Conference life, and President Hart delighted us with his historic address. Our hearts swelled with gratitude and a pardonable pride as we were reminded of how step by step the National Conference of Charities and Correction had advanced from the day of its first meeting, held in connection with the American Social Science Association in New York, in 1874, until it had reached a height where it could be said of it, in the words of Professor B. B. Huntoon, of Kentucky, "The education of the people in social economics, and the encouragement of scientific methods, may be fairly credited to the Conference." This is the testimony to the work of the Conference in the past. What of the future?

President Hart's address was not all laudatory. Had it been, it might have had less of incentive for the future. He wisely called our attention to the mistakes in the past, and so called our minds to the demands of the future. Surely, as we look about us, we see much that needs the attention of just such a body as this. We are like the traveller upon some mountain height. Standing now upon the highest point which was within the range of our vision only a little way back, we find that it only covered up and hid from our view still higher points beyond. And so, doubtless, it will ever be. As our horizon broadens, and the atmosphere becomes more clear, and our sight more keen, we shall ever see in our realm of charities and corrections evils to be overcome and reforms to be instituted, ever greater heights beyond to be attained. This sweeping of the eye ahead, these thoughts of the great work yet beyond us, may for the moment be discouraging, possibly depressing; but what is worse than travelling on a dead level? The depression can possess us but for a moment. From the high point which we have attained there comes to us the bracing air of heaven itself; and its exhilarating influence puts new blood into our veins, our step becomes elastic, and we press forward to the work before us.

The attempt to bring about, as far as we may, the divorce of

politics and our State institutions,— institutions professedly and, where their work is done properly, actually for the cure or kind custodial care of poor creatures whose minds are dethroned; to be in the place of minds to those whom Heaven has never blessed with minds; to face in the right direction, and encourage to so continue, our boys and girls who, from hereditary taints and evil environments, have gone all wrong; to confine the hardened and semi-hardened criminal, until he can go out from the place of confinement rehabilitated, no longer to be a curse to society,— these are the duties of State institutions. Why should politics be allowed to dictate to, and be allowed to place over all these institutions men whose habits of mind and thought, whose education and experiences, are all most foreign to the objects for which the State has built and is maintaining them? Why should the tax-payers of the State be compelled to pay for the inexperience of such men, who are foisted on them as servants to care for these great institutions every time the politics of the State government is changed? To ask these questions is to answer them; and still this great wrong toward the best interests of the institutions, and this wicked waste of the people's money, goes on. And the Conference's trumpet must not be silent or give any uncertain sound regarding it, and our efforts must not be abated until this evil is forever banished.

The giving of alms, falsely called charity, still exists. It is only a sop to a too lively conscience, or the expression of a maudlin sentiment, the evil effect of which we all well know, and which has been illustrated in many a city the past winter. The exercise of it has induced men to abandon fairly lucrative employment, and seek places where "a fellow don't have to work, and gets just as good a living." With all the study which has been given to solve the cause of this, and to correct it, the solution is not yet fully reached.

And now a new and serious feature is added to the problem. Great armies of the unemployed are at the capital of the nation, seeking relief and aid of the government at its seat at Washington. Certainly there are great and momentous questions before us. We look, however, with strong hope toward those institutions of learning which are making a special systematic study of sociology for a solution of these important problems; and this comparatively new movement in our colleges and universities is most hopeful.

Is it not quite possible that some mistakes have been made in our

system of education? I know full well that this is a sensitive subject; but I will be bold enough to venture the suggestion that, perhaps, in our laudable ambition to advance our system of education, we have, unfortunately, placed some children beyond the callings which they must follow in life. We have given them little of practical value; and possibly honest labor has, without intent, been thus degraded. If this is a fact, is there not work for the Conference in an effort to correct this, to advocate trade schools as part of the system of public education, and to impress on all minds the truth that any honest labor is honorable, and honorable just in proportion as a man, young or old, gives his best talents to it, whether it be in a profession or as a day laborer?

Misdemeanants still luxuriate in our county prisons, committed on short sentences, but frequently enough to be continually sheltered from the storms of winter, and to be exempt by human statutes from the divine law, "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread"; and, being all the time under the operation of the fee system, the humble instruments for the financial betterment of constable, justice, and sheriff, at a large annual expense to the long-suffering tax-payer. Accidental criminals are still serving sentences in our prisons far beyond the time necessary to accomplish the good intended to be wrought out by such confinement, while the worst members of the crime class are daily turned back into society to prey upon it. It would seem that there was work yet for our committee on prisons, and will be until the fee system is abolished, and the indeterminate sentence and parole law is enacted in every State. And, if what is reported regarding the working of such law in certain quarters is a fact, it should be operated entirely independently of warden, superintendent, or local board. More, perhaps, as applications for pardons are now treated, in some States, through an advisory board of pardons. The doors of our prisons are swinging open each day to release from confinement hundreds of men, many of whom step out into a free life with misgivings, but with a sincere desire to live better lives, and with the avowed purpose by honest toil and correct living to win for themselves the respect of their fellow-men. Though they may be somewhat weak in purpose, and devoid of self-reliance, because, if it was ever possessed, it has for so long been unused, a helping hand must be extended to them, until, having got upon their

feet, they can walk with steady step the road which is at first so hard for them to travel. The course to be pursued with the discharged prisoner, who proposes reformation, is a subject worthy the best thought and deepest study of this body in the future, as it has been in the past.

It may become one of the missions of this Conference to deal with the present methods of our jurisprudence, which make the escape of the guilty about as apt to occur as that of the innocent, because, as Judge Brener says, of "the sensitive anxiety of modern jurisprudence lest some mistake be made and an innocent person be allowed to suffer."

There is still before us unsolved, or at least unsettled, the great question of immigration. Some attention has been given by past Conferences to this important matter. But until the enactment of wise laws which shall deal with immigration from a preventive standpoint, and which at the same time shall shut out no desirable person who wishes to land on our shores and make his home among us, the question will be a live one, and should command the best talent in its discussion, and all the force and power of the Conference in obtaining proper legislation.

As long as the marriage relation is permitted to be the haphazard thing it is, just so long must the child-saving work hold a prominent place in our deliberations, and a peculiarly popular place on our programme, because of the helplessness of the little creatures who are ushered into life with no choice as to ancestry or environment.

Our National Conference has attained its majority. Its face is again to the front. We start to-day with a new and very important committee, that of the study of sociology in our colleges and universities. We have hope of great benefit from its work, composed, as it will be, of the most eminent students of this important science. Almsgiving will be taken out of the realm of the emotional; and we have every reason to expect that almoners will in time be persons with heads and hearts at an exact balance, and paupers be no longer created by the very means used for their relief and comfort. The work of this committee will, we believe, hasten the day when from every institution of higher learning in our land shall come forth men consecrated to, and fully equipped for, solving many of the problems which have engaged the thought of this Conference for twenty years. It is theirs to do the work described by the late Doctor Henry Mor-

ley in the words: "A State can be no better than the citizens of which it is composed. Our labor now is not to mould States, but to make citizens."

We have among us, and numbered with us at this Twenty-first Conference, for the first time as a distinctive class, those angels of mercy who minister to the sick and attend the dying in the institutions erected, endowed, and maintained for the poor and friendless of earth. Their lives are consecrated to most noble service, their hearts are full of love; but their impulses are directed by intelligent, well-trained brains. We welcome them, and cherish high hopes of the broadening work which their presence and co-operation will inspire and direct.

The thought of broader and broader work before us suggests a needed amendment to our rules, and it may not be out of place to suggest it here. The officers of the Nineteenth National Conference conceived the idea, and put it into execution, of the Executive Committee distributing all announcements of the Conference through its Secretary. With this work in mind, Mr. Alex. Johnson, its Secretary, at much pains and trouble, attempted to procure lists of the names of all persons in each State and Territory who were interested in the questions presented and discussed at our Conferences. As was inevitable, this first effort resulted in securing rather inperfect lists. The Executive Committee of the Twentieth Conference adopted the same plan for the distribution of information regarding the Chicago meeting, considering it an excellent one, if reliable lists could be secured. With this in view, the lists, containing some six thousand names, were copied in groups of States, and the copies sent to the respective States for correction and return. These lists are still imperfect, and must always be as long as the lists have to be transferred to the Secretary of each succeeding Conference,— an officer who has all that he can attend to, to prepare for the meeting of the Conference itself.

To have this plan practicable, it has been suggested that rule two of our rules of procedure, which refers to officers, be amended so as to provide for an officer whose term shall be continuous, a permanent corresponding secretary, his duties to be to secure the names and addresses of persons in each State and Territory who, under our rule, are eligible to membership; to place such names in lists by States and Territories; to see that such lists are kept perfect from

year to year; and whose further duty it shall be, under the direction of each succeeding Executive Committee, to distribute all information which is published for distribution by the Conference, except, of course, the volume of Proceedings. This suggestion comes from members of our Conference who have had large experience in this line of work, and is now recommended to this Conference for action during this meeting.

As we look forward to-night, and contemplate the labor which is before us, shall not our desire be to make it more and more a positive work, so that "the evil cast out will no longer return to find an empty habitation which it can again enter with much additional evil, but, as evil goes out, and the place is swept and garnished, good will enter, and occupy every room, to the everlasting exclusion of evil"? In the strength of such desire let us go forward in "the patience of hope."

II.

State Boards of Charities.

THE VALUE OF STATE BOARDS.

BY LEVI L. BARBOUR.

Some impatient old fellow, your committee has forgotten who, once remarked that the mills of the gods grind slowly; and this seems to be especially true during the last year with the mill for grinding out State Boards of Charities. In fact, your committee is unable to discover any indications that the mill has been in operation. There is no appearance of any grist.

However, your committee is sufficiently acquainted with the mill business to be aware that the grist frequently does not appear while the most grinding is going on. It is not to be supposed that there are any strikes or lockouts in the mills of the gods, or that there is any question of supply when there exists a demand. In the present condition of things it hardly seems that there is any over-supply of well-directed philanthropy. Your committee, therefore, knowing the usefulness, and indeed the necessity, of State Boards of Charities, has great faith that the gods will come on with another grist before long.

It is said for our encouragement that our friends in Missouri will make a strenuous effort with the next legislature of that State, and that the State of Oregon will again pass a law creating a Board at its next session. Glad tidings are also hoped for from Louisiana. Would that we might see the good old State of Tennessee among those whom the gods remember this year, and its Board present at the next Conference!

Progress, in all matters of reform, education, and civilization, is uneven and unsteady. Along certain lines, at times, there seems to be an utter stagnation, even a retrogression, and then again a

sweeping onward with resistless force. The reports of the several States will show us that considerable progress has been made in many of them in many particulars. Of how great advantage it would be if we could have such a careful report from every State in the Union, and how much mutual encouragement and instruction there would be in them for us all!

When Paul referred, with approbation, to being "all things to all men," he gave State Boards of Charities a valuable hint; and so did Matthew when he said, "Be ye wise as serpents and harmless as doves." Though "all men" were not then collected into this glorious Union, nor divided into States, and though States had no organized State Boards such as these, there is reason to believe that both these pieces of advice were given for their guidance when they should come into being. Nothing has, so far, come to the ears of your committee, indicating that during the last year any of the State Boards of Charities has failed to follow the advice given by the two apostles. So far as has been learned, prudence and conservatism, together with energy and industry, have characterized the workings of all the Boards.

A State Board, as is suggested by the first advice, should adapt itself to its surroundings, and not go so rapidly as to get out of sight of the people. When one examines the things that are wrong in a State, they seem so many, and so evident, that it is difficult to refrain from bringing them forward and urging their abolition; and, when one sees how much good can be done and how much suffering and degradation may be avoided by instrumentalities not existing, it seems frequently a lack of duty not to advise their inauguration.

There may be great elasticity in the functions of a State Board. What meets the wants of Maine does not necessarily meet the demands of Mississippi. Different social conditions require different treatment and remedies; but, wherever there are charitable and penal institutions, there is ample work for a Board to do. No State in its institutions and social condition is so near perfection that there is no demand for its half-dozen best citizens to devote their efforts to the betterment of the criminal and the pauper, the delinquent and the deficient. Indeed, these are times when all good citizens need to keep a sharp eye upon social doings in all the States, and to watch carefully and jealously the direction of public opinion, that which is ignorant and untrained as well as that which

is intelligent. The newspapers are too sensational and too aimless to be relied upon implicitly for information and as guides. Men need to confer and consult together for a correct understanding of social conditions, and especially regarding the proper remedies to be applied. Such conferences need to be frequent. How different, for instance, the disturbing elements are to-day from what they were a few years, or even one year, ago!

It will be remembered by many how earnestly former conventions urged that proper immigration laws should be passed and enforced. The gates were left wide open too long; and to-day we see how the country suffers from the floods that have been poured in on us from Asia upon the West, and the paupers and criminals of Europe on the East. The Western gate has been closed, though too late; but the bars are still down in the East.

It will be remembered, too, how earnestly the tramp question has been studied, and how it was feared that, unless restrained from his nomadic course of life, the tramp and the beggar would ultimately threaten our very social existence. To-day we see them organized into what they are pleased to call "industrial armies," threatening the very heart of the nation with violence unless furnished with work which they never intend to do. What this gathering horde really demands is that the Nation adopt the system of "outdoor relief," and that all its members shall be the recipients of that living which they conceive the world owes them, regardless of any effort they may make, regardless of any demand for particular kinds of work and prices in payment, regardless of all rights of property, regardless of the right of their fellows to accept work, and regardless of the right of society to do without them.

Well, what has this to do with the organization of State Boards of Charities and their duties? Let us see.

A State Board should be composed of citizens whose characters and reputation for high-mindedness and fair-mindedness will entitle their opinions upon any public question to careful consideration and great respect. They should not be, and are not, selected because of their party affiliations and political shrewdness, nor because of their sectarian inclinations, nor, last and least, because of their family connections, but because, disregarding all these attachments and entanglements, perfectly proper in themselves, they possess a breadth of vision and warmth of sympathy that can embrace,

in consideration, all humanity; because, with their powers of discrimination and foresight, they will be able to suggest checks for growing evils, and advise and aid reforms. They are not professors with fine-spun but untried theories, nor cranks with hobbies, but men, as you will see if you run over the list of them, who have been busy and successful in professional and other higher business walks of life,— men whose energy and practical common sense have recommended them to the executives of the respective States as proper persons to advise with regard to the management of public institutions, and to devise improved methods of treating social diseases, caused by the delinquencies and deficiencies of human life which render the victims of them burdens on the public.

Their field of work is the prison, the jail, the reformatory, the insane asylum; and, still more, the promulgation of such preventive measures as may render all these unnecessary.

These men are worshippers at the shrine of altruism. Their best thought, their best efforts, are given to the cause which they serve without stint and without price. Their only compensation — and it is payment far beyond the payment which gold or office or honor can make — is the satisfaction and the gratification which come from a benefit conferred upon mankind. Truly, in such case, it is more blessed to give than to receive.

Is there any question that six or eight of the wisest and best citizens of a State, devoted to the repression of vice and crime, the amelioration of suffering among dependent humanity and the prevention of pauperism, organized into a Board, working upon recognized lines of reform, by continued thought and effort must succeed in exerting an influence on such evils, and find a remedy for them?

The present condition of those who are compelled to occupy our penal and charitable institutions, when compared with the condition of those of former years, and, more yet, the number of those who have been prevented from becoming inmates of such institutions, are the best answer and proof.

Now, can any State afford to deprive itself of the services of such a Board? The cost is such a mere bagatelle that it is not to be considered.

Vice and crime and beggary do not die from neglect. They thrive most when watched least, and the only remedy for them is eternal

and organized vigilance. Care and vigilance have been exercised in the past, and with the passage of time an increase of watchfulness and effort in all the various departments of reformatory work is apparent. Especially, in devotion to children, through kindergartens and the State care of dependent children, has wonderful success been attained.

In most of the States the matter of education is organized and systematized from the primary schools up through the high schools to the college or State university; and we find at the head of the system a State Board of Education, or a superintendent whose duties correspond to those of such a Board. In the name of consistency, why not such a supervising Board and a similar system and organization of penal and charitable matters? All the arguments available for the organization of the State educationally apply to it in the care and correction of its dependants and delinquents: only more urgently, because in the nature of things there is not so much attractiveness in the work, nor so much solicitude and apprehension, if it be neglected. Let us remember that it is the laggards and the sluggards that impede the forward march of an army. With the march of civilization, the front ranks will move fast enough if we only bring up the rear.

So far as State action in matters of charity and correction and reform is concerned, it is the special function of State Boards of Charities to watch over it, to guide it. Directly or indirectly, most of the progress that has been made has originated with these Boards, or with men of like character, though working at a disadvantage, who have been engaged in the ennobling work.

The more particular and stated duties of such Boards, as generally set forth in the acts of the legislatures creating them, are: —

First. Inspection and report upon all State charitable and penal institutions, all county or district jails and city lock-ups, and all poorhouses. The reports include a full census of inmates, their physical, moral, and social condition, their duties, and the discipline maintained, and a financial statement of cost and expenses, to be used for comparison with those of other institutions. These inspections are made frequently, and at unexpected times, so that an every-day condition of things may be known.

Those in charge of institutions never have, and never will report their own faults and failures. They seldom report any untoward

influences that magnify the evils they are called upon to amend, unless there is supervision and liability to criticism. This does not come so much from wicked intention as from carelessness.

Second. The tabulated and condensed results of inspections and reports should be presented to the governor, to the legislature, when in session, and to the public especially, with such advice regarding the correction of evils and the extension and direction of the work as the Board may be able to give. The reports should be full and fair, praising good work when found, but without whitewash when corruption or incompetency are encountered.

The public press, if properly appealed to and wisely used, may be made a great assistant. It is through it, to a great extent, that the public at large becomes interested, and may be reformed.

Third. To such Boards are frequently submitted the location of State charitable and penal institutions, and the plans and estimates of buildings; but they have nothing to do with the expenditure of the money, their duties being advisory, and not executive. As a Board is constantly traversing the State, and frequently other States, visiting and examining the location, the safety, and the healthfulness of like buildings, and the management generally of such institutions, their advice is of great use to a local board.

Fourth. The annual estimates and demands of every nature of all State institutions, penal and charitable, are submitted to them for their advice and recommendation before presentation to the governor and legislature.

Fifth. In some States they are authorized to convene annually, for consultation, with the superintendents of the poor and the county agents for the care of children.

These conventions are held one year in one part of the State, and the next year in another, so that the people generally may have an opportunity to be present, and become personally interested in and learn of such matters. The expenses of such conventions are met partly by the people where the convention is held, partly by the different counties sending officers or delegates, and partly by the State; just as the expenses of this national convention are partly paid by the people of Nashville, by the States sending members of State Boards, by other organizations represented, and by individuals who are delegates. The members of Boards frequently procure the publication and free distribution of pamphlets and papers on social

topics, written by eminent authorities on such subjects, which have a great effect upon the thinking public, and in that way arouse interest which frequently effects the abolition of abuses.

By all these means the public of this great land is assisted in forming its opinions, not on party questions, but on social and ethical matters. These matters are made the every-day, bread and butter, intellectual food of the people.

Anarchists, socialists, and demagogues by their talk and rant may deceive the people for a time; but among the important means of offsetting their work, undeceiving the people, and spreading the truth are such conventions, such discussions as are carried on, such papers as are read, and such publications as are issued under the auspices of this and similar conventions. This is a part of the indirect but nevertheless valuable work of the State Boards of Charities.

The present question is, Will the no-Board States help themselves in charity and correctional matters, by the establishment of such Boards, and by such help unite with the States having Boards in helping the whole country up to a higher plane of social existence?

BOARDS OF STATE CHARITIES AS BOARDS OF CONTROL.

BY GENERAL R. BRINKERHOFF.

With my views and experiences as a member of the Board of State Charities of Ohio for the past sixteen years, and my understanding of the reasons for creating such boards, I do not see how it can become a board of control and continue to be a board of State charities.

In our State, and in nearly all other States, each separate institution for the care of the dependent, defective, and delinquent classes, has a governing body, or board of control, the members of which are known as trustees, managers, or directors, as the law of their creation may designate.

These boards of control have full administrative powers, and are

authorized and directed to operate their several institutions within their legal limitations, and are only responsible to the appointing or legislative powers by which they are created.

In the nature of things, in a large State the appointing and legislative powers cannot visit and inspect the institutions in charge of these various boards of control; and hence the necessity for some person, or persons, whose special business it shall be to furnish the required information, based upon careful inspection and thorough investigation.

To secure such inspection and investigation, boards of State charities have been created; and in the nature of things they must be purely advisory if their functions are to be performed with entire impartiality. To give them executive or administrative powers is to defeat the purpose of their creation; for a board of control cannot properly investigate its own actions.

Therefore, with this understanding of the functions of boards of State charities and of boards of control, it is clearly evident that they are entirely dissimilar, and should be entirely separated. To call the boards of control having charge of the State institutions of Rhode Island and Kansas boards of State charities is a misnomer. They may discharge their duties efficiently without supervision. And in a small State like Rhode Island, where all the State institutions are upon one farm, and are under the immediate supervision of the appointing and legislative powers, a separate board of State charities, as a board of inspection, may not be necessary; but in a large State such a board is essential, if proper supervision is to be maintained.

There are now in the United States eighteen so-called boards of State charities; namely, Massachusetts, Ohio, New York, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Illinois, Indiana, Minnesota, Colorado, South Dakota, North Carolina, Montana, Wyoming, Wisconsin, and Kansas. Of these Rhode Island, South Dakota, and Kansas are purely boards of control. Massachusetts and New York have limited administrative powers, and only supervise charities. All the others, practically, have no administrative powers, and supervise both charities and corrections. The preponderance of opinion, therefore, based upon the experiences of these several States, is largely in favor of boards of State charities without administrative powers.

The reasons for such conclusion have never been presented more forcibly or intelligently than by Dr. Richard Dewey, superintendent for many years of the great asylum for the insane at Kankakee, Ill., in a paper entitled "State Policy in the Care of the Insane," read by him at the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Denver, 1892. Coming from an asylum superintendent under the supervision of a board of State charities, this opinion is entitled to more weight than that of a member of such board; and, therefore, I give it in preference to my own. He says: "Every State should have its board of public charities, possessing advisory powers and duties, and the right and duty of inspection and investigation, and of reporting its conclusions in relation to finances, humanity, efficiency, or any other subject. Such a board should be appointed by the State authorities, as should also the trustees or managers. These boards should be non-partisan, representing both the leading political parties.

"No compensation should be allowed to any member of these boards except for actual expenses. Their labors will thus be performed from motives of public spirit; and only men will accept such office who are philanthropic in their ideas.

"A board of State charities uncompensated and serving for honor, and with advisory powers, I believe to be preferable in the present state of affairs in our country to a salaried commissioner or boards of commissioners with mandatory powers. As soon as a salary is attached to a position in the gift of a State executive, it becomes an object of petty ambition to persons who have rendered services of a purely political nature; and such a position is too often given as a reward for such services. If the salary is not a large one, furthermore, only persons of mediocre ability will seek it; and it is not to be expected that our States will be willing to create boards of commissioners of lunacy sufficiently highly salaried to command first-class ability. It is much to be preferred, therefore, that public-spirited citizens should hold such positions, and labor in them from an honorable ambition and motives of humanity and benevolence, and having advisory rather than mandatory powers. The responsibility thus remains fixed where it should be,—in the immediate management of the institutions, which can better work out individual excellences than if all are reduced to a dead level by the rulings of mandatory commissioners."

It will be noticed that Dr. Dewey indicates a preference for a separate board of control for each institution; and in this opinion I heartily concur, for each institution has problems enough of its own to require for their solution all the time and attention any one board can give. Each institution has an individuality of its own, and each requires special study and thought; but where they are of different classes, as, for example, the asylums for the insane, the deaf and dumb, the blind, the imbecile, correctional institutions, the impossibility of sufficient knowledge for proper direction by a single board is clearly manifest.

In Ohio we have fifteen State institutions, averaging nearly a thousand inmates in each; and there are two more in prospect. These institutions are widely scattered, some of them over two hundred miles apart; and, therefore, for a single board of control to attempt an intelligent management of all of them is simply preposterous, and outside of Rhode Island I doubt its advisability in any State within the Union. For separate boards of control every State can command, without pay, the best service of its best men; but with a single board of control, where salaries must be paid and the entire time given, such men could not afford to serve. And, even if they could, politics, and not merit, would govern in appointments; and, as a rule, they would be left at home.

In short, all experience indicates that a separate board of control for each institution is the best, and that over them, as advocated by Dr. Dewey, all that is needed is the independent, unbiassed, non-partisan supervision of a board of State charities; and in this opinion I am sure a large majority of those who have given attention to the subject will heartily concur.

My conclusion, therefore, is that the ideal board of State charities is the Ohio idea,— a non-partisan board of six members, with the governor *ex-officio* chairman, and with no executive or administrative powers whatever.

III.

Charity Organization.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

The report presented last year in Chicago upon the history of the movement with which the name "Charity Organization" is associated was so elaborate and complete, not only in its enumeration of agencies coming within the designation of the title, but in its method of dealing with all questions properly included in the work assigned to the committee, that an attempt to pursue a similar inquiry this year would inevitably lead to a great deal of repetition. No marked change in the methods pursued by societies for organizing charity and kindred bodies has occurred during the past twelve months of sufficient interest to justify the present committee in traversing the well-trodden ground of last year's report; and it has therefore seemed best to devote our space to a subject which is at present of special and most timely interest,— namely, *methods* pursued by societies such as those represented by the committee in dealing with the almost unprecedented distress accompanying the great industrial depression of the past ten months.

Although there may have been in certain sections of the country instances of great business depression during the last twenty years, yet since 1873 there has been no general stagnation in trade at all comparable to that from which the American people are now slowly and painfully recovering.

The system of organized charity in this country has never had to deal with such a problem, because all former periods of industrial depression antedate the introduction of organized charity into the United States. It is as yet too early to collate fully, in a statistical form, the work done by the various societies during the past trying

season ; but it has seemed to your committee that statements of the methods pursued in ten cities representing a wide range of territory and having great differences in population and environment would be most instructive if the papers were prepared by those having expert knowledge of the conditions involved and sufficient discrimination and insight to avoid the mistakes into which untrained writers are so apt to fall when dealing with matters connected with charity.

We have therefore selected such a group of cities located in the Middle States, the South, the West, New England, and the Rocky Mountain region, and have secured from each a report prepared, as far as possible, by some one who, on account of training, long service, and devotion to the work, has been considered able to give the Conference, in succinct form, such facts as are of greatest value. We hope that the comparison of these reports will form a basis for a much wiser administration in the future than has at any time been attained in the past, for the avoidance of many mistakes and the utilization by the whole country of invaluable experience gained in each part.

In closing our report, we have but to express the conviction that, while the resources of the Charity Organization Societies have been severely tested by this period of depression, yet the necessity for their existence has been demonstrated, and they have gained a firmer and more permanent grasp upon public confidence.

Respectfully submitted,

James W. Walk,
James F. Jackson,
P. W. Ayres,
Charles D. Kellogg,

Committee.

THE SITUATION IN NEW YORK CITY DURING THE WINTER OF 1893–94.

BY CHAS. D. KELLOGG.

Professor Huxley, it is said, absorbed in a multitude of thoughts, one day hailed a cab in the Strand of London, and, telling cabby to drive as fast as possible, jumped in. After a while he was aroused from his meditations by the reflection that he did not appear to be reaching his destination in a reasonable time. So, stretching out his head, he called to the driver, "Do you know where you are going?" The answer came back from the box, "I don't know, sir; but I'm driving as fast as I can." The belief last winter that there was unusual distress in New York caused many impulsive people to set on foot relief enterprises of which it may be said, "They drove on as fast as they could, but didn't know where they were going." In time they all reached some destination, and it is now growing more and more evident whither they went. But not all temporary relief organizations drove off haphazard. Some admirable charities were set on foot, and were guided by men and women who knew precisely their aim and route before their wheels began to turn. In attempting to recount the services, good and bad, of these associations, it is well to survey first the conditions under which they were set on foot.

The Situation.

The financial difficulties of last summer and autumn, and the consequent industrial depression, prepared the public mind to expect a winter of extreme hardship among the poor. This expectation was well founded, and not greatly exaggerated. The newspapers, with their inveterate sensationalism, however, told extravagant tales; and too many of them were interested in making the industrial condition out as bad as possible. The public was credulous, for the general depression touched every household not protected by superfluous wealth. Moreover, authentic statistics were rare, and loose conjectures passed current for estimates. Invaluable to students, therefore, was the one single investigation which the mayor caused to be made by the police department in January, the month in which, as a

general rule, the demand upon permanent charity funds is always the heaviest. The patrol men of each precinct were instructed to inquire, at every house in their beats where working people lived, how many persons were out of employment; and the work seems to have been done as faithfully and well as could have been expected of the political machine. The returns showed that there were 44,495 families, numbering 204,515 souls, in which one or more persons were out of work, and 4,186 single persons dependent on toil who were unemployed. The number of the unemployed, all told, was 67,280, of whom 22 per cent. were women and girls. Of these, about one-fifth said they were not in need of assistance. The result of this police inquiry, therefore, gave a resident population of 53,520 persons who answered that they were in need from lack of work.

This number, far as it is from equalling the sensational estimates of the newspapers, is appalling enough. Yet sight must not be lost of the fact, once very clearly examined and explained by Carroll D. Wright, that at all times, and especially in winter, there is a considerable number of people accustomed to work, who are temporarily idle as the normal condition of their crafts and pursuits. Thus coal miners work but one hundred and eighty-three days in a year, on an average. In winter most building industries stop, but the wages of the busy months provide maintenance for the idle days. If our inquiry is, not how many wage-earners were idle on a particular day in New York, but how many more were idle in January, 1894, than in January, 1893, we shall come more closely to an estimate of the industrial emergency of last winter. In other words, we are dealing with an exceptional state of things, and wish to know the excess above the normal social condition for which especial provision was made. Probably, if a census were taken on any winter's day in any considerable community, it would be found that one-tenth of the regular wage earners were idle at that moment, that this intermitted toil is a usual industrial condition to which workmen's lives are adjusted, and that this condition creates no demand upon charitable relief. Moreover, there is always in a great city a considerable ratio of people who are chronic idlers, and live upon the funds of charity. Their usual representation of their condition is that they cannot get work and are in need. They are the poor whom we have always with us. To what extent these characters figured in the public census there are no means of ascertaining, but any household inquiry must have

included a goodly proportion of them. It perhaps will be a fair conjecture, from these facts, that the addition to the regular poor relief resident population of New York last January, caused by the industrial disorder, numbered about 40,000 persons out of employment, and, with those dependent on them, a population of 172,000 souls.

No account has thus far been taken of the homeless and vagrant, that great army of city locusts which annually glean the fields of disorganized and municipal charity. The Secretary of the City Health Department wrote to me in relation to the lodging-houses which hold permits from his department have accommodations for 13,000 lodgers and are usually overcrowded in ordinary winters, that on the night of the 6th of January inspection showed the presence in these of 9,900 persons, and at another date of about 9,100. That they were not full he explained by saying that indigent persons found places in the free lodgings provided by various charitable associations, where they are furnished at least with chairs and provided with breakfast. These places he had learned were greatly overcrowded. It is probable that those who sought nightly shelter in these charitable lodgings and in station-houses were as many as those who frequented the licensed lodging-houses where there is a small charge for accommodations. In this event the migrant, non-resident poor in the city at one time during the winter averaged 20,000 persons. This is a class that seldom has any family dependent on its members. In this way it is estimated that there were during the winter 60,000 idle, able-bodied indigent persons, and a population of about 200,000 to be provided for by especial exertions in New York.

Remedies.

What provision was made for this work?

Let us notice first, as most worthy, the provision of self-help, the most stupendous of all. Dr. Stanton Coit, at the head of one of the university settlements, affirmed his conviction that 40 per cent. of the wage-earners of the city were unemployed, some having had no work from three to six months when the winter came on. There were others whose employment was greatly curtailed, so that in some extreme cases their earnings fell to $1.00 a week. If this were the case, then there must have been a host, larger than the police census discovered, that had no enrolment on any report of

destitution. How sharp was the pinch here was in some measure disclosed by the exceptional and prolonged activity of the pawnbrokers, and the fact that $2,000,000 was withdrawn from a single (the Bowery) savings-bank. Let it be noted with honor, too, that 9,370 families, confessing that their earnings were cut off, declined charitable assistance. Probably they had some resources from the beneficial funds of their trades-unions and mutual societies, but these families represent a feeling and conviction full of significance that pervade organized labor. Working classes hold charitable enterprises in detestation and scorn. The feeling does not arise simply from self-respect,— because a man or woman would not have the name of being relieved,— but from an economic and class conviction that charitable relief stands in the way of a juster distribution of profits, and is an aristocratic concession to poverty, in order to content it with an unequal and debasing social system. Labor demands justice, and not charity; and this sentiment is inculcated in all labor organizations until a man deems it traitorous to all the interests of his class to accept any sort of alms. It was this sentiment which concealed more than half the dire penury of New York last winter from notice. In obedience to it, not less than 50,000 families consumed their savings, pawned their heirlooms and clothing, economized their tables, exhausted their dues in beneficial societies, and gloried in their pride of independence. We may ponder well the inestimable value of that sentiment in keeping society wholesome and manhood untainted amid the torture of suspense and the temptations of penury.

There were three lines upon which the beneficent exercised their pity: (1) the permanent societies and the churches roused themselves to enlarge their operations; (2) temporary organizations were formed and managed by persons skilled in philanthropic law, in principles of co-operation, and in finding remunerated labor for those in need; (3) emergency funds were created under a management responsible to no one but their projectors. And these drove on as fast as they could, like Huxley's cabby, without knowing whither they were going.

(1) What was done by churches and permanent relief agencies can only be estimated approximately, as the data are not yet published. The heads of thirteen general societies have kindly furnished statistics from their records; and they show that their re-

ceipts for 1893 were $261,369, and for 1894 $369,188, or an increase of 41.2 per cent. This fairly represents about one-fifth of the regular agencies for the immediate relief of the poor; and hence the computation is made that all of them had an aggregate of $539,094 in excess of the previous year's income, in order to meet the enlarged demand upon them, due to the exigency of the time. From statements supplied by a number of churches the conclusion is drawn that their poor funds were increased by an average of at least $250 each for the same reason, thus putting into the account a further sum of $150,000.

(2) The systematic, organized, and representative organizations for the emergency comprised four principal agencies that wrought by co-operation with the permanent distributing societies, and made employment the typical form of relief. The earliest began operations in November, and in January they were all in the field of action. They had names and incomes as follows: —

East Side Relief Work Committee	$19,244.90 *
Committee for Relief by Work	100,901.25 †
Citizens' Relief Committee (appointed by the mayor)	140,618.00 ‡
Business Men's Relief Committee of the Industrial Christian Alliance	35,402.45
	$296,146.60

(3) The city itself made no increase of appropriations to its Board of Charities and Correction beyond a trifling additional sum for coal; but the legislature authorized the Park Commissioners to expend $1,000,000 on public improvements, in order to supply work to the unemployed. And, therefore, that sum, although wickedly directed from its benign purpose into partisan channels, had direct relation to the general resources for mitigating unusual distress.

Of all the irresponsible temporary relief enterprises, none was, perhaps, conceived in a more genuine spirit than that of one of our leading merchants; and yet it was in fundamental violation of economic laws. He professed to put his operations on a purely business basis,

* In addition to $102,519 received from the Committee for Relief by Work; making $121,763.90 expended by this Committee in giving relief by work.

† Exclusive of $50,000 received from the Citizens' Relief Committee.

‡ Gave no direct aid, but turned over its funds to other agencies, notably $50,000 to the Committee for Relief by Work, which in its turn supplied the East Side Relief Work Committee, and other bodies which gave relief only by work, with means to do it.

and to sell fuel and provisions, but to give away nothing. In this way he claimed to keep clear of the taint of charity and aloof from mendicancy. The fiscal side of his enterprises has not been disclosed; but it was stated in the newspapers that they cost him $100,000 more than his receipts, which was a business method not to be commended to men who do not wish to go bankrupt. We assume that this liberal sum was really his contribution to the relief of penury. The Industrial Christian Alliance, the chief aim of which was to sell cooked food under cost, was also open to the same objections.

There were six other much advertised funds managed at the caprice of their projectors; and we name them and state their income, as follows: —

City Officials and Employees	$67,500
Tammany Hall	70,000
World's Bread Fund	43,000
Herald's Free Clothing Fund	55,000
Christian Herald Fund	34,500
Tribune Coal and Food Fund	21,536
6-15-99 Club	7,507
	$299,043

Add together these items, and it appears that, outside of the usual receipts of normal years and the operations in aid of normal want, New York had $2,414,283 available for the succor of the excess of destitution over ordinary years. If half of the migrant and homeless people be taken as the exceptional excess for the year, there was this sum to distribute to the 50,000 persons thrown emergently upon public sympathy, which would give them $48.30 each. It is more than probable that those statements put both the money and the number of the necessitous too low. In April last the New York *Evening Post* published, as a result of a careful canvass of sixteen of the largest charitable societies, its conclusion that the amount of money raised this year to meet exceptional conditions was $5,000,000 more than the funds available for the poor in ordinary years. But, if this paper omits other items of money raised, it also probably omits an equivalent demand for succor on the other. It has advanced no estimate or conjecture that had not some authentic testimony to rest upon, preferring to keep within known quantities rather than to sail on the boundless sea of conjecture.

Results.

No reports are thus far attainable which will give any approximation to the aggregate of persons or families reached by these agencies, nor of the number employed, nor of the number of days' work done, nor of the tons of coal and groceries distributed, nor of the thousands of garments given away. It is useless to state any partial or conjectural summaries, since they can lead to no good. It is enough to say that it was very rare that cases of starvation were discovered, that no person whose needs were discoverable or made known was left in want, and that the trivial socialistic bread riots and hunger parades of last autumn failed as demonstrations and promptly ceased.

As was apprehended, the great publicity attending the establishment of emergency funds drew many tramps and idle persons from the country to the city. Five of the societies which labor most among the Irish, Italians, Scotch, and Welsh, reported that they encountered large accessions to their list of applicants from non-residents. Other societies detected nothing of the kind of any moment. Perhaps this movement was checked temporarily by the action of the police, who, for a brief while, caused station-house lodgers to be committed to Blackwell's Island; but this policy was soon abandoned. Thus far there is not authentic information to warrant any report whatever upon the flow of rural or vagabond pauperism to New York last winter. There is always such a movement every autumn, but little is known of its amount.

Review.

There is no occasion for comments on the methods of the regular relief agencies. With a single exception, they simply expanded their operations and pursued their wonted way.

Of the temporary schemes, something may be said. A fine example of a safe and ingenious way of encountering emergent destitution is afforded by the East Side Relief Committee. In the first place, its officials were drawn from established and earnest societies located in the district taken in charge. Then work was obtained by clever expedients. A treaty was made with the Street Commissioner under which certain precincts in tenement districts, rarely thoroughly

cleaned, were assigned to the committee to keep clean at its charges, the department promising to cart away the heaps of dirt. 3,292 persons obtained an average of 18 days' work each, 997 persons found an average of 12 days' work in the committee's tailoring-shops, and 433 persons, chiefly women, had 19 days' work each at home. The product of this labor was not sold, but given away by Miss Clara Barton, President of the National Red Cross, to the cyclone sufferers of South Carolina, and through church societies,— a distribution intended to keep the committee's operations from having any influence upon the labor market of the city. Still further, a sanitation bureau employed 1,153 men 19,175 days in cleansing and whitewashing 5,200 rooms, 3,300 halls, 500 cellars, and 250 shops and out-buildings. Wages were $1.00 per 7 hours' work out doors, and less for tailoring. The committee avoided all but necessary publicity, and sought out its beneficiaries by distributing tickets to trades-unions, societies, churches, etc., with the request that they be given to persons known to them to be in need. Now, this was a type of the way in which all the better enterprises were conducted. Never before have charity organization principles been more effectually followed. Even reckless, insincere movements loudly proclaimed that they were co-operating with churches and trades-unions and societies, and aiding only those who came to them with responsible recommendations; and they did enough of this to give a color of pretence to their operations.

It will be seen that these methods were based upon the economic principle of finding a sort of employment which should have the least influence on the law of demand and supply in the labor market; that they afforded wages that should bar out cold and hunger, and yet not tempt the workman from other labor; and that the poor were not summoned to their doors, but carefully sought through channels where their real need was known, in the friendliest and most personal way and in such a manner as to inflict the slightest wounds on their pride. This relief by work agencies was all closed before or early in May; and their final message to their fellow-citizens was their conviction that only a dire necessity justified their interference, but that in ordinary times artificially created work sustained by charity was not a sound principle. They also urged the desirability of systematic efforts to reverse the flow of labor from the country to the city.

Reference has been made to irresponsible societies and funds provided by men in official or political life. There was much of boastful publicity and fulsome self-adulation attending the schemes set on foot by journals, with the exception of the *Tribune* Coal and Food Fund. Their distribution of tickets was no safeguard. The journals only investigated when they wished sensational articles to publish in their columns. They drew crowds to their doors, composed of those who blushed at the exposure of their condition, or still more copiously of those who had long since ceased to blush. They sent wagons blazoned with their names and errands into crowded tenement streets, and called aloud the names of those for whom they had a charity package. In a word, they surrounded their work with conditions that repelled real merit, and lured the shameless to their doors and carts.

Politics put its taint on what it touched. The Tammany Fund was raised by its district organizations, hundreds of saloons contributing one day's profits. Some of the money was given to Catholic societies; but much of it was distributed by district captains, so that it might prop the fortunes and increase the vote of Tammany. The Park Commissioners' $1,000,000 and the City Officials' and Employees' Fund were tributary to partisan ascendency at elections, and did almost nothing to mitigate the bitter distress of the industrious poor.

Finally, the large distribution of coal, food, groceries, etc., at prices ruinous to petty dealers, cannot be sustained on either economic or social grounds. They were not business enterprises, only a transparent simulation of business. One of their pernicious effects was necessarily the driving out of stores into the ranks of the destitute an unascertained number of small dealers, who could no longer sustain themselves against such rivalry. Again, the very claim that these enterprises were not charitable, but business, gave the thrifty a saving pretext for using their restaurants and stores as bargain counters. Why should they not buy in the cheapest market? Wasn't the whole affair one of pure trade? Doubtless the projectors of these schemes were sincere in their purpose and generous in their sentiments; but, erroneous as were their methods, let us find a gentle apology for them in the hope that what an emergency might justify will not become a permanent thing for ordinary use.

With the lengthening days throwing genial light on the winter that opened so somberly, the emergency charities have dissolved. We can see in the retrospect the large-heartedness of modern humanity, we can note the patience and pathetic silence of the poor, we can thank God that dreadful gulf has been bridged so quietly, and doubtless we can learn many a lesson that will discipline and nerve us to nobler achievements in making the lowly masters of their opportunities, and, above all, masters of themselves.

A WINTER'S WORK IN ST. PAUL.

BY JAMES F. JACKSON,

SECRETARY OF ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, ST. PAUL.

The charity organization idea is represented in St. Paul by the Associated Charities, which is composed of all of the charitable organizations of the city, and is governed by two representatives from each, and thirteen representatives at large. The association was organized as the result of efforts initiated by the old and well-established Relief Society, in whose building we continue to have free office room. Work was only begun in October, 1892, and does not include the giving of alms. All St. Paul charities, and most of her philanthropies, co-operate to a greater or less extent through the Associated Charities. The past winter has witnessed an increased disposition to check with its records before granting aid, except in emergencies; thus overlapping is nearly eliminated. Three lines of work have been undertaken,— investigation, registration, and closer co-operation between all the charitable and philanthropic organizations of the city.

During the past six months we investigated 1,012 families. Almost all of these investigations were made at the request of the public or private charities of the city. The public charity of the city is disbursed through an official body known as the Board of Control, who refer their applications to us for investigation; but our force was not nearly sufficient to investigate the condition of all applicants before first aid was given.

The Associated Charities holds investigation to be of prime importance, and that in the interest of all concerned the definite knowledge of what is needed in kind and amount ought, so far as possible, to precede aid. We try to show our kindly purpose, to gain the confidence of the applicant, and to demonstrate that investigation is not simply a contrivance to keep all relief treasuries intact and leave the pantries of applicants empty. Probably our investigations developed much the same line of unexpected conditions which others have found. Likely, too, others have found the same difficulty in convincing the tender-hearted that the most picturesquely squalid are not the most deserving people. Our reports of the investigation of some recipients of long-continued aid, as well as some new cases whose need appeared great, were revelations to the almoners. It is a pleasure to state that the results of our investigations have been such that nearly all of the charities which ask for investigations from us are increasing the percentage of these requests.

Our work commenced under favorable auspices as to registration. The card system was adopted; and the form of card used in this office is in use by the Relief Society and the Board of Control. These and other societies gave us free access to their records, and rendered all necessary assistance to facilitate our use of them. We now have reports from all charity organizations, except part of those under church control and the secret mutual benefit societies. There is a gradual growth in this department. We copy from the books of the Relief Society daily, whereas some societies send us only monthly reports. During the past six months 1,750 cards were added to our registration of families, making a total of 5,300 different families treated by the reporting societies from Jan. 1, 1892, to April 1, 1894. This does not include 750 names of those treated at the Free Dispensary, who were aided by no one else. No cards were made for those who were treated at the Free Dispensary, those who bought goods of the Salvage Bureau, or those who only had work of the Public Employment Bureau, so long as they received no alms.

The co-operation of the societies receives some impulse at our semi-annual meetings, and more from their relations with the Associated Charities, as their agent for investigation and registration. The past winter co-operation received an impulse by a successful

series of monthly parlor conferences. The subjects for these conferences varied; as, for instance, "Child-saving," "Woman's Work for Woman," etc. Under each subject the representatives of the various charities presented their ideals and methods of work. Discussion, a half-hour of sociability, and prompt closing at ten o'clock were features of the conferences.

At the close of the last conference an active charity worker said, "You can see the effect of Associated Charity effort in the papers read this evening." One of the asylum presidents testified that our efforts had been very satisfactory, and that we were a material aid to their work. Other testimonies of a similar nature have been voluntarily given by members of other boards, including several from the Board of Control, for whom two-thirds of our investigating is done. The value of this testimony is somewhat enhanced by the fact that the aggregate contributions from the societies is more for the current year than for last year.

The First Ward is our most populous one. It contains few paupers and fewer of our richest people. A Ward Relief Association was formed in the fall, and both our president and our secretary were invited to attend meetings. We were consulted; and most of our suggestions adopted, in their form of records, etc. Our office provided them with blanks for investigation, and we have had their fullest co-operation from the first. Aside from this special work, and the increased efforts of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul and other relieving agencies, the work of the Relief Society the past winter was nearly three times its usual volume; but no family was allowed to suffer whose needs became known. The Relief Society has just set on foot a provident fuel scheme, from which much is expected.

The charity organization spirit was embodied in the St. Paul Parish House, an active centre for philanthropic effort, established last fall by Rev. S. G. Smith, D.D. One of the efficient lines of their charitable effort was the Salvage Bureau, which collected second-hand clothing and furniture, repaired the same, and then sold them to approved persons for enough to pay the expense incurred. The Salvage Bureau also adopted, substantially, the form of record suggested by us. This Bureau kept many from the necessity of alms.

Last August it became evident that some adequate provision must

be made for the unemployed. The mayor called a representative committee of twenty, among whom members of our executive committee were prominent; and the result was the registration, and later the investigation, of the unemployed. Public and private funds provided those who would apply with work on the streets about one week in four or five, at $1 per day, and park work, which continued until November 20. This committee did a valuable work, though they had only half enough money. Here was a practical illustration of the fact that the idea of the work test is taking a stronger hold on our charities and our charitable people. Had the necessity of the work test, and of investigation of applicants for work, been recognized last fall as it was this spring, more could have been accomplished with the means at hand. It would have been a gain every way, had the foreman demanded more work in the day. That so valuable results were reached, and such general satisfaction given, is largerly due to the personal attention of W. L. Wilson, Esq. This Public Employment Bureau adopted the forms recommended by us for investigation, registration, and street index, and consulted our registry in regard to applicants. We also held conferences with their new investigators. In the spring, when there were fewer applications, each office assisted the other in the matter of investigations. We compared their investigations with our records at different times; and, so far as we have records of the unemployed, we add all facts as to their work for this Bureau. We also have an exact copy of their street index for purpose of identification in the case of all new applicants. Until November only one in six or seven of their applicants for work had previously received aid of any kind. Since then they have added over 1,500 names, and we an equal number. Now about one in three of their names are on our records. In all possible ways the Public Employment Office and our own were mutually helpful.

The work test was put in very successful and satisfactory operation by the Bethel Friendly Inn and Wood-yard; and, with the co-operation of our police department, it nearly rid our city of tramps. The Bethel controls the building. Otherwise the Inn is self-supporting. This seemed to me almost a model institution, except that they kept no adequate system of records.

One important step in the charitable work of the city was the establishment on the present basis of the weekly mothers' meetings

at the Bethel. The mothers, mostly from homes in the vicinity of the river, gather to receive instruction on about every subject in which a mother ought to be informed, indulge in light refreshments, and have a social time. No alms are given. So far as possible the underlying principles of friendly visiting direct the efforts; and the results are renewed hope, courage, better homes, and more self-reliance. Last year the mother-in-charge said she did not see how a well-to-do person could establish friendship with one who lacked, and not give the articles desired. I relied on testimony rather than on experience for a reply. Now she knows from rich experience how it is done. St. Paul had no free soup kitchen, no free lodgings, and very little public distribution of bread.

The past winter has been one of progress. We have not attempted to review all the charitable work of the city, but simply to speak of the new developments along the charity organization line. We realize that there is room for improvement in our present work, and that there are valuable lines not yet undertaken by us. Within this coming year we hope to commence, what we believe to be the soul of charity organization work, friendly visiting.

WORK IN CHARLESTON, S.C.

BY MRS. M. A. RHETT, SECRETARY.

The Associated Charities Society of Charleston has been in existence seven years.

There are few cities in the South where public charity is more liberal, but this large-hearted benevolence was sometimes indiscriminate; and, though we organized to supplement, not to supplant, existing charities, we have found it difficult to overcome a deep-rooted prejudice against any change in the old methods of administering charity. However, we feel greatly encouraged by the progress in co-operation this year.

Of the negroes, who compose more than one-half of our population, few apply for aid; and there are few foreign beggars. Most of our chronic beggars are natives of this city, or those who have come from

the country to work in our factories, bringing with them the seeds of malaria, which the change of residence develops. Entirely destitute, and from ill-health unable to earn a support, they have to be cared for until able to return home. A peculiar, and also the most satisfactory, phase of our work is dealing with a people who have seen better days,— who are now in actual want, and yet shrink from making known their need.

We have reduced the number of street beggars and tramps over 90 per cent., and also dealt successfully with several difficult cases of chronic beggars. One woman, who would not work, but begged from door to door,— sent her son, a lad of eight years, to obtain money under false pretences,— has been driven to work, and her child placed in an orphanage. Another, whose husband was a confirmed drunkard, periodically deserting his wife and leaving her utterly destitute, was told, after having been repeatedly assisted through benevolent societies, that no further help would be extended unless she made an effort to earn a support for herself and her children. The latter are now in the Orphan House, where the mother is also employed.

This winter we have had a larger floating population,— men who came from the North in search of employment; and while, owing to the pressure here, we have been unable to meet every demand, we have given work to several, and have sent a large number to relations who were able to assist, or to their homes. And from several of these have come grateful acknowledgments. In this feature of the work we feel the need of a wood-yard as a labor test; but, as our population is small, and the demand for lodging and food exists only for a part of the year, it has not been considered practicable to start one.

This winter we have met the unusual distress caused by the temporary closing of some of our factories and the diminution of wages by freer intercourse between this association and some of the other charitable societies of this city, by the aid of funds placed at our disposal by the Relief Society formed during the severe winter of 1892, by clothing contributed by the Needlework Guild, and by the generous co-operation of the Fuel Society. The many instances where temporary help had to be given to bridge over a critical moment having been met in this manner, no extra exertion on the part of the city authorities was necessary.

For the improvement of our work in the future we need (1) an increase of co-operation, the "foundation stone of organized charity," (2) friendly visitors, to be valued far above the mere giving of relief. At present the secretary alone does the visiting.

THE WINTER IN PITTSBURG.

BY R. D. M'GONNIGLE.

The recent industrial depression has not been without its silvery lining. This was the spontaneous impulse of enthusiasm that rose out from the hearts of the more fortunate, and illustrated itself in a feeling of true brotherliness. It was a beautiful exemplification of a distinctive characteristic of the American nation, fellow-feeling, which prompted immediate and thorough action, and brought about relief in a condition of affairs such as the world has fortunately not often witnessed.

We know how in all the larger cities self-constituted committees, with and without the aid of municipal governmental assistance, sprang into rapid existence; and, while they may not have been equally effective in alleviating the demands made by every individual, their intentions were good. And that a great deal was accomplished, and that in some instances wonders were achieved, is not to be doubted.

In Pittsburg the necessity for relief was especially augmented on account of the large number of its idle industrial establishments, which threw out of work thousands of men.

All during the summer of 1893 increasing want was noticeable. Many of the iron mills, the steel works, and the glass works shut down. While the weather was warm, there was not much cause for alarm, and those who had no work were able to exist on their savings; but, as soon as the trees had shed their leaves, poverty made itself perceptibly felt. The local department of charity and charitable institutions were overrun with demands from the hungry and needy, and could not cope with them successfully. The clamor for bread and clothing grew very rapidly, until on the 12th of December

Mayor McKenna, of Pittsburg, called a public meeting. The call struck a sympathetic chord; and the meeting was a representative gathering of the best and wealthiest men of the city, who voiced a unanimous willingness to do all in their power to quell the ravages of destitution.

At this meeting several committees were appointed: on finance, on employment, and to lay out plans as to the best means of aiding those in want. Voluntary subscriptions of money were asked, and it was decided to furnish employment. The city had recently acquired parks of some three hundred acres, and it was deemed advisable to employ the workmen on these.

To this end the committees entered into co-operation with the Department of Public Works. It was agreed that the city was to furnish foremen and engineers, while the committee selected the time-keepers. The uniform price of $1 per day per man, irrespective of duties, was decided upon.

In the mean time subscriptions had been coming in, amounting to nearly $50,000. The city ordered the police department to take a census of the unemployed, the report showing that there were 5,300 heads of families out of work. This ended the preliminary work, and the committee established an office in the city hall. It was a regular business establishment, with clerks, book-keepers, and heads of departments, all employed at $1 a day, the members of the committee of course receiving no compensation. Public announcement was made, and everybody out of employment and wanting to earn $1 a day was invited to come to the city hall.

Names and addresses were taken on a blank form, giving age, married or single, nationality, residence, occupation, time out of work, number of family at work, number of family dependent.

These applications were divided by district among the police, who were asked to investigate the statements of the applicants. The police returned such cards to the committee next day; and, according to the result of the investigation, the applicant was or was not accepted there and then.

If accepted, he received an order blank for work, which he took to the park, and was put to work at ten cents an hour. The orders were not transferable.

A record of every man put to work was kept at the office of the committee by a simple system of cards, while the workman himself

received at the park a brass check, which he retained while at work. The committee endeavored to give work first to men who had families depending upon them, and in all cases American citizenship was made a proviso.

The Citizens' Relief Committee set the first men at work on Jan. 1, 1894, and continued until April 5, 1894. During that time 22,528 different applications for work were received.

Mr. Andrew Carnegie offered to duplicate all subscriptions received for a period of two months, commencing with Dec. 28, 1893. The amount thus paid by him was $125,922.19. The next largest subscription came from the Westinghouse interests, amounting to $10,000.

The total amount paid out by the committee up to April 5, 1894, was $256,416.02. Out of this sum $3,290.02 was paid for clerk hire and printing expenses, leaving $253,124 paid out for labor performed.

During the entire period 13,224 individuals received work. The smallest number on any one day was 2,000 men at work, and the largest 4,571, an average per day of 2,907.

Of the 13,224 men employed there were married 11,202; their dependants, 42,712; single, 1,841; their dependants, 4,257; not classed, 181; total employed, 13,224; total dependants, 46,969. Hence a total of 60,193 were benefited by this work.

The employees represented 80 different occupations, and were divided in the following four classes:—

Professionals	6
Commercial	30
Skilled laborers	1,810
Laborers	11,378
Total	13,224

Of the entire number 39.55 per cent. were classed as American born; English speaking, 71.217 per cent.; foreign speaking, 28.782 per cent.

It was fortunate that the committee was able to provide this work, not only because it furnished those in want with the means of earning a little money, but because it was also a saving to the city, as much work was accomplished which the city would have had done some time probably at a higher price than it cost just then. The

men in the parks were employed in laying out roads, building an artificial lake, and grading.

Schenley and Highland Parks are some distance from the business portion of the city; but the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company furnished free transportation in the morning and evening to one, and the Allegheny Valley Railroad Company to the other.

Also, owing to the distance of the parks from the workmen's homes, food was distributed to the men; and in some cases shoes and clothing were given.

This system of helping the poor prevented much hunger, starvation, and even crime. It gave the man in want an opportunity of maintaining his independence, because he gave his work for the money he obtained; it kept thousands who saw starvation staring them in the face out of the workhouse; it obviated the necessity of begging; it helped hundreds to retain their own personal pride and self-respect; and it put up a barrier against the temptation of theft, robbery, murder, and suicide.

In no case was politics allowed to interfere either for or against any applicant; and the greatest tribute that can possibly be paid to the committee lies in the fact that, out of the 13,224 men, not one had any complaint to make against the committee.

Apart from this Citizens' Relief Committee there were started in Pittsburg a number of other organizations,— missions, leagues, clubs, unions, etc.,— one of which established a soup-house that did more harm than good. In these there was no organized method for distribution of charity; and want was not decreased, but apparently grew day by day. Some of these mushroom organizations sought honor for their work through the newspapers, with the result that Pittsburg became the Mecca for all the tramps and vagabonds in Western Pennsylvania, Eastern Ohio, and West Virginia. The Department of Public Safety in Pittsburg had to inaugurate a special department of food supply, to feed all the loungers at the crowded police stations.

The kind-heartedness of the people was also much abused. A little coterie, headed by one of the most notorious beggars in Allegheny County, established a place ostensibly for the benefit of the poor and suffering. They gathered clothes, money, food, and everything they could get in the name of charity, and then disposed of it to make money for themselves.

Still, much good was accomplished, and for that we ought to be thankful; but to the thinking mind this period of depression in Pittsburg afforded a great lesson, and showed the importance and necessity of organizing all the charities of the city.

The City Department of Charities and the regularly organized Society for the Improvement of the Poor worked in harmony as far as possible; but there was no regular interchange between the various relief agencies, such as would prevent duplication and imposition.

The two agencies above named met all the demands made upon them promptly, and their work was as well done as it could be under the circumstances; but, of the relief societies that sprang up in the emergency, many did more harm than good, and, not being accountable to any authority, so far as I am informed, no report has been made of their receipts or disbursements.

Pittsburg needs a complete organization, all its charities working through one channel in a systematic, business-like way, taking up work on hand, and carrying it forward every day in the year.

As an example of what can be done in this way, I take pleasure in reporting the work of the Christian Aid Association of the East End. This is largely a residence section, and has a population of about fifty thousand. When it became apparent that there was unusual destitution in the city, and that help was needed, representatives of all the churches in the territory met, and an organization was effected for work from December to March 1. An office was opened, and a census of the unemployed was taken by enumerators employed for the purpose, all other information was put into intelligent shape, visitors were employed, and the territory was laid out in districts, in each of which a volunteer committee of ladies was appointed. District conferences, and also general conferences of all district committees and visitors, were held from time to time. Relief was only given out after the most searching investigation of the circumstances of each applicant. The Department of Charities and all other agencies for granting relief were notified by the Association that it would care for all persons in need of relief in its territory, and thus duplication was avoided. Physicians volunteered to attend to cases of sickness sent them by the Association, and druggists and dispensaries agreed to fill prescriptions free of charge. All the churches agreed to provide for any members sent them by the Asso-

ciation, so there was no repeating in this direction. A storehouse was rented, groceries and provisions were purchased at wholesale rates, and the goods were issued on orders from the general office.

Cash subscriptions received	$11,512.31
EXPENDITURES.	
Supplies	$4,448.24
Labor	5,089.61
Sundry expenses	1,636.81
	$11,174.66
Balance	$337.65

The balance of $337.65 was turned over to the Society for the Improvement of the Poor.

Visits made by physicians	574
Office patients attended	208
Prescriptions furnished, amounting to	$107.95
Number of cases investigated	2,192
Number of cases relieved	1,424
Number of cases supplied with clothing	618
Number of cases supplied with coal	534

Even in providing work, the East End Committee was successful. You will remember that the Citizens' Relief and Employment Committee provided only for American citizens. Now, there were a number of Italians and others not naturalized, yet in great want, and as much in need of bread and butter as anybody.

The West Pennsylvania Hospital grounds of Pittsburg needed grading badly; and it was here these men were set at work by the East End Society at fifty cents per day. For this purpose $5,089.61 was spent, representing 10,178 days' work.

The work of the Association is a practical illustration of organized charity in contrast with the work done or attempted by the many unorganized charities in other portions of the city, which speak volumes for the newer method of work. The management of the Association was in the hands of business men, who took up the work without sentiment; and, although they had had no experience previously in this line, they carried it forward in accordance with their ideas of common sense and business training, and they may well feel proud of their work. Their report, now being made up,

shows in detail their entire operations; and, while they have laid down their work, they have their organization records, blanks, etc., and are prepared to take it up again if it should be required at any time. As already stated, what Pittsburg needs is organization of all her charities on these lines.

THE WINTER IN LOUISVILLE, KY.

BY RANDOLPH H. BLAIN,

PRESIDENT CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

The financial panic of 1893 was accepted by all charity workers as a sure forecast of the distress awaiting the poor in the coming winter. Early in the fall the Louisville Charity Organization took up the question, How shall the emergency be met? Should there be relief to the able bodied without work? No! was the unanimous response. Should there be free soup-houses? Emphatically no! was the conclusion on this point. Experience had taught that relief without work was demoralizing, and free soup-houses were vicious. What, then, was to be done? But one thing was left,— to arrange to give relief in exchange for work. With this in view a more commodious Wayfarers' Lodge was erected, and a large supply of wood was laid in.

The winter came. As expected, the first cold spell found hundreds of families without coal, many without bread and suitable clothing. Those in distress were people who had never before been in such straits,— carpenters, moulders, bricklayers, and laborers. They would conceal their distress from neighbors, but would tell it to the Charity Organization Society agents. Wood was on hand, and some 30,000 bushels of coal contributed by the city. Work was at once offered, and cheerfully accepted. Carpenters were employed to erect a woodshed, pull it down, and put up another, to fence the yard, and to do all the work that could be found. They were employed not less than three days in a week at $1 a day, and paid in coal or provisions, as they chose. Outside work, such as making tables, they were allowed to do on their own account on

the premises. Laborers and other mechanics split kindling at ten cents a barrel. These were allowed to make fifty cents a day, and were paid in groceries, coal, or clothing. No one was allowed to do more work in a week than would pay for coal and provisions sufficient to supply his family during that time. From thirty to sixty men a day, heads of families, were thus assisted during three months of the winter.

Arrangements were made with responsible grocers in different parts of the city to accept our orders, and supply groceries at the lowest price. Blank orders were supplied by the grocers. A foreman from the applicants for help was appointed to superintend work. Each evening the foreman gave each man a certificate showing how long he had worked, or how many barrels of kindling he had made; and this was presented to the secretary. If coal was wanted, an order was mailed to the coal-office, and the load delivered next morning. If groceries, an order on the grocer was given for fifty cents' or one dollar's worth of groceries. The grocer supplied whatever was asked for, to the amount of the order, noting on the blank the items supplied and prices charged. These orders were returned at the end of the month to the secretary, with the grocer's bill.

At an expense of less than $2,000, from October to March, work was given to many persons, and in that way the actual necessaries of life supplied to their families. Many thousand barrels of kindling were made, which were sold as fast as the market would admit.

The Wayfarers' Lodge in the same months accommodated 2,311 transients, furnishing 25,774 meals and 10,803 lodgings, and turned out some 17,000 barrels of kindling.

The latter part of the winter the Woman's Club of Louisville, co-operating with the Charity Organization Society, opened rooms for furnishing work to women. On certain days women cut out garments; and on other days sewing women came to get the work, and were paid by a fixed schedule. The Charity Organization Society sent sewing women known to be in need for the work.

The question now presents itself, How did the efforts put forth meet the emergency? The answer is, Well. At a meeting of the unemployed a resolution was adopted, most appreciative of the Charity Organization Society. Anticipating a longer season of winter, the unemployed called on the city to furnish work, as it was then thought

the undertaking was too large for the Charity Organization Society. Fortunately, it did not so turn out.

Here it may be suggested that it would be wise for cities to lay in coal at a low price, and, instead of giving it to able-bodied men, to supply it at first cost in exchange for work at half wages, giving fuel and food in exchange for work, and giving no more work than is sufficient to supply actual want.

We are anxious to discover some other means of employing unskilled labor than making kindlings, and would welcome suggestions.

Again it may be asked, Where does the money come from to pay for so much work? to which we answer, Mostly from unsolicited voluntary contributions. Hard weather and a notice that money is needed by the Charity Organization Society usually brings enough. The public is awake to the idea that relief without work is demoralizing in the extreme. Let it be understood that this principle is strictly adhered to, and a cheerful and generous support will be forthcoming.

This society has as general secretary a lady whose careful management and strict adherence to charity organization principles have secured marked public approval in the liberal support of the society. It has also two thoroughly competent and active agents. Within the past year a commodious building, costing $12,500, has been presented to the society, and with another gift of $5,000 a modern Wayfarers' Lodge has been erected. The lodge has at all times been self-sustaining by reason of the kindling made and sold.

THE EMERGENCY WORK IN BOSTON.

BY WILLIAM P. FOWLER.

Early in November, in consultation with some of the officers of the largest relief-giving societies, the Directors of the Associated Charities prepared an appeal, which was signed by seventeen of the principal societies of the city, published in nearly all of the newspapers, and widely distributed as a circular. This was headed "How to relieve Distress among the Poor this Winter." It deprecated the establishment of new agencies of relief, and urged the public to contribute more liberally than ever to the organized and existing charities, and to give both money and personal service.

This circular was productive of much good; and, had its advice been heeded and funds and helpers been forthcoming, the emergency would have been more satisfactorily met and without doubt many of the evils resulting from the unusual amount of relief given out this winter would have been averted.

Unfortunately, the community was not yet ready to put the whole burden of caring for the poor and the unemployed where it properly belonged. Instead of employing the regular troops to meet the enemy in the hour of peril, it was thought best to call for volunteers, and rely upon their inexperience and zeal.

A public meeting was held at the call of the mayor; and a Relief Committee was organized, which raised and expended a little more than $100,000. The result was not as disastrous as might well have been expected, for the work was to a considerable extent under the charge of veterans in charity organization work. Investigation was deemed imperative, and many of our more active workers did effective service in determining the needs and merits of the recipients of the relief work.

The "Citizens' Relief Committee," as it was called, spent its entire energies and funds in supplying work to the unemployed. Nothing was paid out for coal, clothing, or groceries. In emergencies applicants were referred to existing societies for needed relief. The work was of various kinds, suited so far as possible to the

strength and capabilities of the people applying. Payment was made in cash, the men receiving $1.50 per day, or in some departments $1 for a half-day of five hours, the women eighty cents per day. Men were put to work upon new streets, sewers, street and alley cleaning, and snow-shovelling. Toward the latter end of the winter many of the weaker sort worked at making rag carpets at lower pay. The women were employed in knitting, making rag carpets and crazy quilts. All men and women applying were carefully registered; and one or more visits were made to their homes, ordinarily before they were given work. The whole number of male applicants was 7,446, and the number of men given work was 5,200. The number of work cards issued was 13,021. The number of days' work done by the men was 38,664. The amount of wages paid out to the men as relief was $53,196. The whole number of female applicants was about 5,000. The number of women given work was about 2,200. The number of days' work done by the women was 39,332. The amount of wages paid out to the women was $36,548. The registration began Dec. 26, 1893, and ended March 13, 1894. A large staff of clerks and assistants was temporarily employed in registering the applications for relief, and investigating the truth of the applicant's statements by visits to their homes and to past employers. Constant use was made by the Citizens' Relief Committee of the Associated Charities, thousands of cases being referred to us for reports and aid. And, on the other hand, the existing societies made great and constant use of the Citizens' Relief Committee.

The Overseers of the Poor, as trustees of certain funds left to them by citizens from time to time for the benefit of the poor, established a trust fund wood-yard at their wharf, which remained open from the latter part of December until April 1. This gave employment to 466 men in all. They worked eight hours per day, for six days at a time, at $1.25 per day, working in all 4,172 days. 780 work cards were issued. The whole amount expended, including superintendent's salary of $199.50, was $5,414.81. The men were not enrolled as paupers.

During the winter the police were very active in distributing coal, groceries, and other aid. Several of the police captains sent to us for investigation the names of people aided by them. Hundreds of cases, new and old, were thus referred to us; and our work was greatly increased. A large proportion of the families, aided by the

police, were previously known to us; and many of them were considered undeserving of aid.

Several appeals were made in the newspapers by private individuals, asking that contributions for the poor be sent to them. These appeals met a generous response, and thus new relief agencies were started. Our society strove to guide the distribution of such relief into the right channels, and investigated the applicants when asked to do so, thereby adding materially to our labors.

As soon as we realized the impending increase in our work, we did all we could to strengthen our conferences and add to the number of our volunteer visitors. In default of a reserve corps of paid workers, we resorted to every means possible to assist our agents in disposing of the mass of new business which crowded in upon them. Besides hiring what skilled helpers we could get, many of our more experienced volunteer visitors gave much time to the work, doing about everything which falls to the lot of the agent, investigating new families, writing letters and reports, running errands, looking up references, seeing relatives, etc. The number of clerks in the central office was more than doubled. There and at all the district offices work was kept up every day long after the regular hours were over. Stenographers were employed at the central office and at most of the district conference offices to assist the agents and committees.

The stenographers were employed: 1. To write letters from dictation. 2. To write from dictation the reports of investigation of new families and additional information of any sort about old families, entering them directly on the cards. 3. To take notes of oral reports brought in by our visitors, and of what applicants said in the office. The stenographers soon became quite expert in securing the gist of the conversation of the visitors and applicants, and thus saved much time and effort on the part of the agents. Similar notes were taken at the conference meetings. 4. To do errands and make inquiries of employers and relatives, supplementing the agents' work.

The expense was about $40 a month for each stenographer. In most of the districts the daily committee was re-enforced by the regular attendance of one or more of the executive committee or visitors at the office for a portion of each day. New visitors were induced to offer themselves by newspaper and personal appeals, and

the number of families placed in charge of the more experienced visitors was doubled and trebled.

More benevolent individuals were enlisted by our conferences than ever before. All of the conferences report an increase in such private aid,— in one case, tenfold; and not one reports inability to obtain all the aid needed. In several instances, conferences report more aid offered than was used. Those giving money in this way give to a particular family or families with whose circumstances they are kept familiar by the conference, and, whenever possible, by personal acquaintance.

During the five months from the first of November to the end of March the central office received 37,561 reports against 17,969 in the same months last year, and sent out to different charities in confidential exchange 12,581 reports against 6,488. For the five months ending March 31, 1893, the district conferences received 941 new families, none of which were recurrent cases. All were absolutely new to the society's records. For the five months ending March 31, 1894, they received 2,681, or nearly three times as many. The increased expense of the winter amounted to about $2,500.

A much greater proportion of our families than ever before made direct personal application to our offices,— a fact to be deplored. We prefer that our work come to us by letter or other reference rather than to have the applicants meet each other in our offices.

Reviewing the past winter with the desire to shape the future work of the Associated Charities so as to be ready to meet such crises more adequately and satisfactorily, there are two or three measures which it seems wise to adopt.

1. Our serious mistake was in not having a larger body of trained investigators or agents ready to be called upon in an emergency like this, who would supplement the work of our agents, receiving proper compensation for their services. It would be wise always to keep at least two persons in training as agents. The additional expense involved would prove money well invested.

2. Earnest endeavor should be made to increase the number of experienced volunteer visitors by urging more constant attendance upon the conference meetings and by enlarging the number of the daily committee. Those visitors who have the necessary time and ability should be asked to make themselves thoroughly acquainted with the best modes of obtaining relief and of investigating new cases.

3. There should be concerted effort to obtain the co-operation of the newspapers in our attempts to elevate the condition of the poor. Owing to the ignorance of our methods or the lack of proper sympathy with them on the part of the daily press, we fail to have the popular ear, and thus lose many opportunities of doing good. Unfortunately, the columns of the newspapers were given up during a large portion of the early winter to long accounts of suffering and exaggerated reports of sore distress. These were coupled with frantic appeals for the establishment of new agencies of aid and relief, little consideration being given to the adequacy of existing societies. These appeals and the outcries of some of the socialist and labor agitators, taken together, served to aggravate the evils they sought to cure, so that, while most of the increase in applications for aid was due to the unprecedented hard times, a considerable portion was ascribable to agitation.

In conclusion, it should be borne in mind that the problem of providing work in winter for those normally unemployed at that season, and also of selecting work that can be judiciously done in winters of exceptional depression, has not yet received adequate consideration. The results of this first year's attempt in that direction are yet to be observed and weighed. With this exception no new methods of relief or new sources of relief were needed in Boston. No city in the world is so well provided with means of relief. Its charities, both public and private, are thoroughly organized and carefully administered. What was especially needed was more co-operation, more friendly visiting, more sinews of war. At the outset we felt that our line of action was to extend the old and well-tried methods, and the results have served to strengthen our belief. Better work would doubtless have been done, had we had less to do; but it is our duty to enlarge our facilities for doing business rather than to curtail our activities. We stand before the community as ready to investigate and properly care for every applicant for aid, and should so arrange matters in the future as to be ready for any sudden influx of families, whatever the crisis that occasions it. This has always been our ideal, and even in the stress of last winter we endeavored to live up to it.

THE BETHEL ASSOCIATED CHARITIES.

BY HENRY M. RAYMOND, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

In this review of the organized charity efforts in behalf of the unemployed and needy in Cleveland I shall confine my statements mainly to the work of the Bethel Associated Charities during the past autumn and winter.

Early in the season our employment and relief rooms were filled with applicants who asked for work or aid; and, as the cold weather approached, we were confronted with the fact that the enforced idleness during the summer would make necessary unusual methods for the relief of the needy. The district visitors and the investigators reported mill hands and mechanics, laborers and sailors, clerks and office men, shop-girls and seamstresses, all idle and claiming to be eager for any suitable work.

In October calls for clothing and bed-covering began to be pressing. Societies and citizens made demands that applicants be investigated. When visited in their homes, it was found that, with but few exceptions, the truth had been told. They were in want of the things asked for, and with the appeal for aid came also the call for work.

Men who formerly had continuous work in shops or had been employed by contractors could not find work of any kind. Women who were accounted good seamstresses, nurses, housecleaners, and workers in shops told the same sad story. Our local newspapers were prompt to profit by the situation; and daily the most sensational items appeared, in which the destitution and distress of the suffering poor were portrayed, as only the reporter of the present day can do it.

Our executive committee decided at once that either the Associated Charities would have to make an effort to do all the needed relief work in a systematic way or the newspapers and the scattered, disconnected societies would do a helter-skelter work that would pauperize the recipients. The first step taken was to enlarge the district committees, and enlist in the work the most experienced and efficient workers.

Cleveland covers about thirty square miles of territory, and is divided by the Board of Health into twelve districts. In each a doctor is located, who is paid by the city $600 a year for his work among the sick poor. He is aided by as many sanitary patrolmen as are necessary for the thorough inspection of the district, that it may be kept in a good sanitary condition.

The Association's districts conform to those established by the Board of Health, and on its district committees are placed the health officer, the district doctors, and the sanitary patrolmen. In every possible way the Association has always sought to co-operate with the Board of Health; and this co-operation has been of mutual benefit.

The family visitors supplement the efforts of the district physicians, and aid that the doctors could not give the visitor provides. In looking after the sanitary condition of the homes of the poor, the Board of Health greatly aids the visitor. Usually, the district doctor's office is made the headquarters of the district committee; and the doctor is made chairman of the committee.

But in the emergency work the past season headquarters in each district were established where needed relief supplies could be distributed, and where the unemployed could come for work orders furnished by the Employment Committee.

The district committees averaged about sixty persons. Each district had an investigator, paid weekly at the Central Office; and each district committee worked under the direction of the Central Committee. Daily reports were sent from the districts to the Central Office, and were there tabulated. The names of all applicants, with full reports of the condition, antecedents, etc., were registered at the Central Office; and this was of great value in preventing duplicate giving and in detecting impostors.

Many of the workers in the districts had been active workers in relief societies and church organizations; and, though they had been told before of the need and value of registration in connection with relief-giving, they never realized it as in the past winter's work. We gladly note the fact that a good many of the seven hundred and more workers speak more intelligently and respectfully of systematic methods in charity work than heretofore. This came about through many conferences with the older workers. There were conferences of the chairmen of committees, conferences of investigators, and con-

ferences of family visitors, and all of them experience meetings in charity work.

One of the most important departments of the Association's work was the Labor Bureau, located near the Central Office. Here each district chairman sent such applicants as could not be provided for in the districts; and they were given orders for from one to six days' work at $1 a day at such laboring work as the street commissioner or the park commissioners could provide.

The orders stated the kind of pay the worker was to receive when the work was done. Some needed rent money only. To such persons a check was given, payable to the order of the landlord. Others needed only groceries, or new shoes or new underclothing, and were paid in the relief supplies called for.

Relief supplies were given in payment for 8,900 days' work. There were also 1,570 cash orders on the Labor Office for $8,119; and the money went to the house-owner for rents.

The Hebrew Relief Association by provision sent applicants to the Labor Office with orders for 436 days' work; and the applicants were given checks for rent in payment for work done.

While the resident poor were provided for by the district committees, the wayfarer was looked after at the wood-yard and the Wayfarers' Lodge. It soon became apparent that the unusual numbers of homeless men at the yard would cut up all the wood we had and more even than we could buy.

We therefore arranged with the street commissioner that sufficient work at street-cleaning should be given these men, at ten cents an hour for six hours a day, the payment being 2 lodging and 4 meal tickets, or 2 days' supply for each day's work. Each applicant was allowed 3 days' work a week.

Cleveland was furnished 14,155 days' work; Gordon Park, 1,040 days; Wade Park, 1,815 days,— total, 17,010 days, besides 9,393 days worked by the wayfarers, making the total number of days' work furnished the city and the parks 26,403.

A few facts and figures compiled from the district and Central Office reports may be of interest: —

There were 9,036 families aided. In these families were 25,402 children. The total number in the families was 41,981.

In the relief work 22,756 grocery orders were issued, and clothing orders for 35,567 garments and 9,931 pairs of shoes. There

were orders for 945 tons of coal and 679 pieces of furniture. 13,408 lodgings were given wayfarers.

Among the applicants we found the Germans, Bohemians, Poles, and Irish were in greatest numbers.

There were: Germans, 2,072; Bohemians, 1,496; Poles, 1,378; Irish, 1,242; Americans, 885; Hungarians, 469; Slavs, 267; English, 278; Italians, 182. There were in smaller numbers families of Canadians, French, Welsh, Scotch, Swedes, and Russians.

During the winter there were 55 families who were compelled to vacate their rooms for non-payment of rent. In some instances no rent had been paid since the later spring months. The most urgent cases were widows who had families of children, and had not found sufficient work. These were cared for, and the wood-yard wagon moved the furniture.

One of the most perplexing appeals that was daily brought to our notice was occasioned by the fearful exactions of the money-loaning sharks. The money-loaners are increasing in our city. There is a long list of them in the city directory. They occupy elegantly furnished offices. They live on the fat of the land; and why shouldn't they? They exact 10 per cent. a month interest, and get it.

Yesterday a poor widow came to the Central Office, and with eyes filling with tears handed to the writer a crumpled and tear-stained bit of paper.

It read as follows: —

Dear Madam,— On Monday we will be over after your goods to sell them at public auction, that we may satisfy the claims we hold against you. If you care to save your goods, call at once.

Yours truly,

A few questions elicited the fact that the shark had been repaid in full, and more, too. In this instance the attorney for the Association had the mortgage note surrendered, and the great burden of trouble was lifted from the poor woman's heart.

But, when the amount of the loan has not been repaid, it is a different matter. Then it is that the moving van is backed up to the debtor's home, and all its household goods from cradle to cook-stove are carted away.

There are thousands of families all over the country that are to-day resting under a great burden of debt. They were in most instances in need of ready money for the landlord, the grocer, the doctor. The fact that the debtor is out of work very likely makes the creditor the more persistent. It is a new experience, there is the hope of work in the near future, and the tempting offer of the money-loaner is accepted. The money is counted out, a judgment note is signed, and the mischief is done.

The Ohio legislature is now passing a bill, at the request of the Cleveland Associated Charities, that will so restrict money-loaners that the robbing cannot hereafter be done as quickly as now. The victim is to be given a hearing in court before the goods can be removed. But still better is the contemplated organization of a society for the loaning of money at a reasonable rate of interest.

The Associated Charities has had the hearty support and co-operation of the well-to-do citizens. At no time in the past six months has the work of relieving the distressed been hampered by lack of funds or supplies. This has been due in great measure to the efficient work of the Citizens' Relief Committee, who placed funds at our disposal. The total amount of cash receipts from November 1 to May 1 were $42,659.05. The total expenditures, $37,364.92.

The voluntary workers have been untiring in their efforts to succor the distressed. One of the good things in the winter's work, perhaps the best thing that can be said of it, is that it brought the rich and the poor closer together, benefiting both. This closer touch develops in the one a desire to be more helpful to the weaker brother: the weaker brother no longer wholly discouraged receives the needed aid with new hope and courage.

DENVER'S PLAN.

BY IZETTA GEORGE.

Six years ago Denver's charity workers adopted an original plan of organization, which in many respects has proved a superior one. Sixteen societies are maintained on an annual expenditure of $20,000, half of which is an appropriation of the city, and the other half private subscriptions. The central office receives $4,800 per year, which is expended principally for emergency cases. The co-operating societies and institutions receive amounts according to their needs. With such obligations resting upon us, we were unable to formulate any special plan of relief last winter.

Denver's troubles began in the summer of 1893. Colorado's bright sunshine may have tended to keep her people out of the slough of despondency, but ours was the first State to be overshadowed by the dark clouds of the country's adversity at that season of the year which is usually the happiest and most prosperous.

The sudden decline in the price of silver occurred within twenty days, and in that short space of time a majority of our mines, smelters, and factories shut down. With every avenue to work closed, a great army of the unemployed sought relief within Denver's gates. The Charity Organization Society was at this time of incalculable benefit to the city in registering those who were afterwards given employment or transportation, also in the exposition of fraud.

With the first influx of idle men, Rev. Thomas Uzzel and Dean Peck threw open the doors of their respective missions, and for several days provided food and shelter to about ten thousand men. It soon became evident that more commodious quarters under systematic management must be provided. Accordingly, with money contributed by the State, county, and city, a place called "Camp Relief" was established. Military discipline prevailed, and the help was recruited from the unemployed men.

Under the circumstances the camp seemed an absolute necessity, but it existed only long enough to give Denver a chance to consider a wiser plan of relief. It took but a short time to convince

the management that with an increased distribution of alms invariably comes an increased outcry for more alms.

Employment, such as cleaning the streets, paving, sewer work, etc., was soon furnished by the city; and the building of railroads to Cripple Creek, a prosperous new mining camp, and the revival and development of gold and placer mining, all tended to decrease the applications for charity. Many men and some families were given transportation to their old homes. We soon began to look upon our troubles as light compared with the poverty and distress of Eastern cities.

After the expenditure of about $8,000 to meet the emergency of the summer, the Charity Organization Society entered upon its work the following November with many misgivings; but we have thus far sailed safely over the troubled waters, without the loss of a society or institution, and with sufficient money in the treasury for the maintenance of all throughout the year.

Last fall a meeting was called for the purpose of arousing public interest and securing an additional number of friendly visitors. The attempt was successful, and the city well canvassed, but few families found willing to accept charity that were not already known to the Charity Organization Society or the county commissioners. The latter last year gave outdoor relief to the amount of $20,000,— to the largest number of people in July and August. Their investigator has made 2,200 investigations since November 1. Being in constant communication with our office, we experience more anxiety through fear of the deserving poor *not* making application for necessary relief than of imposition or duplication. Among those who gave personal service among the poor were some of Denver's noble women, who know how to impart sympathy and cheer without condescending, to be beneficent without being professional.

One of the strongest forces for the moral elevation of the poor in our city has been the Kindergarten Association. Situated as the free kindergartens are, in the poorest and most hopeless districts, after years of service in the homes of the children we recognize a vast improvement.

The Denver Flower Mission does a far more practical work than its name would imply. It has twenty visitors; and its trained visiting nurse calls twice daily at our office for advice and consultation. The society supplies food, medicine, and clothing.

A conference, called the Woman's Christian Association Visiting Committee, gives special attention to women and children. They were very successful during the winter in placing unemployed girls in good homes, and many were sent East to friends.

The Hebrew Ladies' Benevolent Society sustains the unflagging interest of twenty-five visitors, each of whom makes two visits per week.

The North Denver Ladies' Relief Society has six regular visitors.

The Woman's Christian Temperance Union supports a mission in West Denver whose manager, with the assistance of six volunteer visitors, has become pretty well acquainted with the needs of the neighborhood. All new cases are referred to us for investigation. Food is gathered from the hotels for widows with large families whose work is not sufficient to support them.

The People's Tabernacle, of which Rev. Thomas Uzzel is pastor, is situated in the poorest district of the city. It embraces evangelical work, an employment bureau, two sewing-schools, free baths, and a medical dispensary.

A similar institution is under the management of Dean Peck. His mission includes a reading-room, medical dispensary, employment bureau, and rescue station. Aug. 22, 1893, Dean Peck opened a restaurant and lodging-house which remained in operation 222 days. An average of 460 persons a day were fed, and 40 lodged. Then came a demand for work by which those without five cents to pay for a meal could earn it; and October 4 a wood-yard was opened, and continued in operation 139 days. It furnished 87 idle men employment every day. The wood-yard receipts were $5,692,03. Expense, $5,698.29. Deficit, $6.26.

A valuable work has been done this year by the Children's Home Society, recently organized. It has placed nineteen children in homes since Nov. 1, 1893, and received forty-six applications for children.

The churches of Denver show a readiness to co-operate with us at all times, and we have frequent inquiries from ministers regarding cases referred to them. The largest Methodist church of our city has six regular visitors. All cases are investigated. 110 families were assisted last winter, 1,000 pieces of clothing and 35 comforts distributed. Financial support is given to the deaconess' homes.

In the friendship and warm cordiality which exist between six

officers of our society, all ministers, we witness an exemplification of the fact that to them religion is not merely a creed, but an experience; not a restraint, but an inspiration.

The Denver Charity Organization Society is advancing quietly, but steadily. It has served its apprenticeship, and its workers realize that we are in this world to grow in strength and wisdom for the doing of this work. Such knowledge as we gain is focussed in the saving and building up of the characters of the unfortunate as well as our own.

A SUCCESSFUL EXPERIMENT IN UTILIZING UNEMPLOYED LABOR.

BY JOSEPH G. ROSENGARTEN.

The problem of our poor and the best methods in which to assist them have, during the past months, forced themselves upon our people, as a whole, with much greater force than in times of prosperity, when the care of the chronic poor receives but little thought from the average citizen.

When it was found that in Philadelphia, besides the ordinary poor, more than fifty thousand working people were in idleness, when thousands of dollars had been spent in feeding the destitute, and they were seen to be as badly off as at the outset, and there was almost nothing to show for the money that had been spent, many thoughtful people were forced to the conclusion that different methods were needed to more fully meet the emergency. Then, as simultaneously in many other cities, the conviction spread that work, not alms, should be provided.

The practical work carried on in the eighth and ninth wards was due to Mr. William M. Salter, who, on Jan. 15, 1894, in an address before the Ethical Culture Society,* advocated the industrial idea as the one best fitted to meet the present emergency. Mr. Salter at once devoted himself to the task of putting this idea into practical

* "What Can be done for the Unemployed," by William M. Salter, Philadelphia. Printed by the J. B. Lippincott Company, 1894.

operation; and, as a result, the eighth and ninth wards Association of the Charity Organization Society set men to work cleaning the alleys and streets of these wards, and issued a special appeal for funds to carry on the work. The response was prompt and liberal, half as much again as was asked for. Work was at once started without waiting to elaborate details, which were worked out from time to time as need arose. An unemployed man was engaged to address the envelopes, and another to deliver the appeal for funds, the latter receiving the cost of postage.

Interviews were had with the municipal authorities and the street-cleaning contractors; and the duties of the city as to the care of its streets and alleys were carefully investigated, in order that the contractors should not be relieved of work, and that the energies of the society should be directed to work which would otherwise remain undone. Many of the alleys were visited, and found to be in bad sanitary condition. The streets of Philadelphia are swept by contract. No such provision is made for cleaning the alleys and passage-ways, which are cleaned only when declared to be nuisances by the Bureau of Health. To these alleys and passage-ways, of which there are about four hundred in these wards, it was resolved to devote the chief attention.

A man out of employment was engaged as foreman, and on February 14 twelve men were set at work. All cases applying for help were investigated by the visitor of the society; and, when able-bodied men were found in the family, they were given opportunity to do an amount of work for which they were paid a sum equal to the relief they would otherwise have received. None but residents of these wards were employed. The men were at first chosen from among those who each morning applied for aid; but so many collected daily at the ward office that it was found necessary to give or send employment cards on the day before that on which the work was to be done, and no man was taken on who had not previously received his card.

The question of the removal of the dirt swept up was satisfactorily solved by the street cleaning contractor agreeing to furnish a horse and cart at the rate of $1 per day; the society to supply the driver from among the unemployed.

During the first week the dirtiest alleys in the wards, a list of which was received from the Bureau of Health, were cleaned. Work

was done on one of the larger streets on days when it was too cold to work successfully in the alleys; and after a snow-storm passageways were swept on certain streets to prevent the passengers in the trolley cars, which stop before reaching the regular crossings, from getting out into the snow. Each alley in the two wards was cleaned at least once a week, and many in the district known as the "Gut" were cleaned daily. So much dirt was collected that for some days it was found necessary to employ two or three carts to remove it.

At the end of ten days the plan was in smooth and successful working order. The men who had received employment cards reported each morning at half-past seven to the foreman at the ward office of the society, where the picks, hoes, shovels, brooms, and cans used were kept. They were given an hour for dinner, and quit work at 5 P.M., returning to the ward office, where each turned in his card, signed a pay-roll, and received $1 for the day's work. The foreman was at first paid $1.25 per day. His wages were later raised to $1.75. The men were paid in cash instead of being given orders for groceries, etc., as it was felt that they could doubtless make the money go farther and spend it more judiciously themselves. The fact that they were willing to do a hard day's work for the small wages paid was considered proof that the money was badly needed for living expenses. It was thought that paying in groceries would make the men feel that so little reliance was placed in them that they could not even be trusted with a day's pay. Many times wives came to the ward superintendent, asking that one more day's work be given their husbands to tide the family over the week.

During the first ten days the plan was in operation seventy-five different men with families were given an average of two and one-half ($2\frac{1}{2}$) days' work each. From February 14 to April 7, when the street work was discontinued, owing to the decreased number of applicants for aid and the starting of work in the Park under the auspices of the Citizens' Relief Committee, one hundred and forty-four different men were given work, averaging twenty men a day and six and three-tenths ($6\frac{3}{10}$) days' work each. To accomplish these results $965.95 was paid in wages, $55.50 for cart hire, and $24.08 for implements,—$92\frac{4}{10}$ per cent. of the whole amount expended thus going directly to the poor.

During this time these men cleaned 2,051 alleys and passageways, 14 squares of Sansom Street, and the yards of 16 houses,

about 205 loads of dirt being hauled away. Besides this, one man was constantly employed as a messenger at the ward office, others for shorter or longer times did clerical work, whitewashing, housecleaning, mending shoes, etc.; and forty-three days' work was done at the wood-yard, men being sent there who the ward superintendent suspected were not genuine cases deserving help or whom for other reasons it was felt best to subject to this hard labor test.

During this time, except in a very few cases where there was sickness in the family, no other aid of any sort was received by these men from either the Charity Organization or the Relief Committee; and they were therefore aided without having their self-respect lowered or being made to feel that they were mere objects of charity, since for every cent received they gave an equivalent in labor. The men were, almost without exception, anxious to get the work, which they did satisfactorily.

This plan rapidly spread to the neighboring wards, when it was seen how successful and simple was its operation. Indeed, it seems probable that these small attempts to provide employment in the various wards had no small influence in bringing about the inauguration of work on a larger scale in the Park and elsewhere under the auspices of the Citizens' Relief Committee.

The success of this work suggests that some such plan might well be adopted as a permanent feature of the work of the Charity Organizations, as a logical development of the "wood-yards" where a night's lodging and meals are paid for by an equivalent in work. Ought not the Charity Organizations to make some provision to aid the man who, although without work and penniless, does not desire to borrow? Should not an opportunity be given such a man to provide for his own wants by his own labor, while in search of regular employment?

The proposition has been lately made in several quarters that the ward societies should undertake the care of the alleys in their respective wards, and make arrangements with the Bureau of Health to act as its agent in the abatement of nuisances, etc., receiving the regular compensation for the work. If this were done, these societies would greatly extend their methods of usefulness in behalf of the poor, and at the same time become an important factor in improving the sanitary condition of our city. The experience of the winter and spring of this year shows that the Charity Organization

supplies local agencies well suited both to secure the help of residents of the wards and to distribute it with the most effective yet simple machinery, and at the least possible expense. The current work of the Charity Organization was carried on without interruption, and its record shows much help given to those entitled to it. The employment of a large number of women in sewing, material being supplied and wages paid by the Citizens' Relief Committee, strengthened the union of that useful body with the active local Charity Organizations. Through it, too, men have found employment in the Park, thus again making work take the place of mere almsgiving. There can be now no difficulty in continuing this plan in the future.

HOW PHILADELPHIA DEALT WITH THE EXTRAORDINARY DISTRESS OF THE WINTER OF 1893 AND 1894.

BY JAMES W. WALK, M.D.

The unprecedented financial stringency which prevailed in the summer of 1893 foreboded in Philadelphia, as well as in other cities, industrial depression as one of its inevitable consequences.

Early in the fall the coming trouble was indicated by the increased calls for relief at the offices of the various charitable societies of the city. The distress was particularly marked among the mill-workers of the Kensington district, a neighborhood almost entirely occupied by textile manufactories, and in October a number of workingmen's aid societies were formed in this part of the city. They all appealed to the public for funds, and made a general distribution of what they received with very little discrimination and with no proper registration of their work. At the same time one of the daily newspapers started a subscription list, and another instituted a bread fund. Of course, such methods of administering relief tended to increase pauperism, and failed to reach the most deserving cases of need.

There are in Philadelphia five chartered societies which give assistance to the poor in their homes. These are the Society for Organizing Charity, Home Missionary Society, Union Benevolent Association, Protestant Episcopal City Mission, and United Hebrew Charities. These all act in hearty co-operation. Early in the fall their executive officers became convinced that it was their duty to place their facilities at the disposal of the municipal government; and, accordingly, a representative of each of them called, in company, upon the mayor of the city, and offered to him their services, either as separate societies or upon some united plan, to provide for the increasing destitution. These societies covered the entire field; but they unfortunately were without adequate funds, as their treasuries had suffered from the hard times, and had also been depleted by the increased demands for relief early in the fall.

The mayor promised to consider the matter, and several meetings of the citizens were held to devise measures for raising the necessary money. The plan finally decided upon was due to a circumstance which had at first been overlooked. There had been in Philadelphia for some years an organization known as the Citizens' Permanent Relief Committee, whose function was to raise funds for the relief of distress in various parts of the world, such as that caused by the floods in the Mississippi Valley, the earthquake at Charleston, and the Russian famine. At one of the meetings of citizens, referred to above, the fact was mentioned that the Permanent Relief Committee had in its treasury about $25,000, representing the surpluses from different funds which had been formerly collected; and those present considered it best to place the financial management in the hands of this body. It was, at that time, generally hoped that the crisis would be of short duration; and it was also felt that the time was inopportune for appealing to the public, as the business community had been greatly embarrassed by the financial stringency of the previous summer. Indeed, many prominent citizens believed that the $25,000 on hand would be sufficient to meet the emergency, and that no public appeal would be required. Unfortunately, this hope was grievously disappointed.

The committee promptly assumed the task of dealing with the distress, and appointed an advisory body, embracing several representatives of the chartered societies, among whom was the General Secretary of the Society for Organizing Charity. The plan finally adopted was to place each ward in charge of a district chairman, elected by the committee, and to intrust him with the administration of the funds which the committee appropriated to that locality. They first dispensed the $25,000 in hand, and then at the beginning of January issued an appeal which yielded about $58,000. A second appeal was made late in the winter, bringing in nearly $89,000. The total sum raised by the committee was $146,744.26, nearly all of which had been expended when the committee discontinued its operations during the present month. While a number of well-known citizens participated in the work of the committee, its success was largely due to the labors of a few gentlemen who had for many years devoted their attention to the administration of relief upon the principles of investigation and co-operation.

The plan of districting the city and confining the work of each

district chairman to the population within his own boundaries was rigidly adhered to, and in this way the chief source of duplication and waste was avoided. In many of the thirty-seven wards of the city the offices used by this committee were the same as those occupied by the district association of the Society for Organizing Charity, and in a considerable number the chairman for the committee were the presidents of these associations.

The other benevolent societies were also represented in the work; and the co-operation among all the relieving agencies was, in the main, cordial and satisfactory. The number of families receiving relief from the committee's funds was 17,908, the number of individuals 71,630, while hundreds of men were aided by employment, chiefly work in the Park. In addition to this a number of women were furnished with sewing, and paid their wages in relief.

A small surplus, still remaining in the committee's hands, will be expended during the summer in giving employment to men with families.

It was the purpose of this committee to devote all the funds which came into its hands exclusively to the relief of those who were temporarily out of employment, not taking up the cases of the permanent poor. Of course, this rule could not be rigidly followed; but the chartered societies, particularly the Society for Organizing Charity, continued to provide for those classes of poor people who always need attention even in the best of times. The fund of this committee was the only general extraordinary fund raised or dispensed in Philadelphia during the period of depression; but an increased amount of relief work was done by many of the churches, and the Society for Organizing Charity found its own operations more than doubled.

Whether there will be a large increase of pauperism due to the distribution of last winter, it is as yet too early to decide; but the best informed observers believe that, as the funds were administered mainly by experienced hands, and as but little duplication occurred, the permanent effects will be much less injurious than has generally been the case.

It should be added that, in spite of the wide-spread distress, there was no effort made to revive the old plan of municipal outdoor relief,— a pernicious system, which was abolished in Philadelphia fourteen years ago.

The Philadelphia Department for the Care of Non-residents.

So many inquiries are received by the Philadelphia society in regard to its method of dealing with strangers that the following brief description of the department for the care of non-residents is here inserted: —

All applicants for relief are divided into the two classes of residents or non-residents. If they have a residence in the city, their investigation and subsequent care come within the province of one of the eighteen district associations, which divide among them the territory of the city. If they be non-residents, they are at once referred to the central office of the society, where one room is devoted to this special work, which is in charge of an experienced agent. The name, age, nationality, occupation, and other facts in regard to each non-resident are, together with a statement of his conditions and needs, entered upon card registers; and the case is then dealt with upon organized charity principles. A large proportion of non-residents apply for transportation to their alleged homes, or places where they claim they can secure employment. In every such case, correspondence is carried on with persons in the locality to which the applicant wishes to go. No one is ever transported upon his own uncorroborated statements, simply to be rid of him; and no one is refused assistance if, after correspondence, his story is found to be truthful, or there seems a good prospect of his getting work in another locality.

This systematic method of inquiry, coupled with the offer of food and shelter at the Wayfarers' Lodges to all who are homeless and penniless, has made the department very popular with other charities, and with the Bureau of Police, to which many strangers apply. The proportion of those applying for transportation, whose statements pass the ordeal of a thorough investigation, does not exceed five per cent.; and many of these are women and children. The expense of this work is borne partly by the society, and in large measure by co-operating agencies, the City Department of Charities and Correction being one of these. During the last year 1,019 persons applied to this department.

IV.

Sociology.

INSTRUCTION IN SOCIOLOGY IN INSTITUTIONS OF LEARNING.

BY DANIEL FULCOMER, ACTING CHAIRMAN,

LECTURER IN SOCIAL SCIENCE, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

About two months ago I wrote all the college presidents of the United States, intending to present my results at a different gathering from this, and on a broader subject, embracing not only "Instruction in Sociology," but in all the other social sciences, such as history and economics. Upon President Finley's request to read a paper at this conference, a second circular letter was sent out and this paper was prepared with reference only to sociology in the strict sense and to the related studies in charities and correction in which the Conference is especially interested. My material naturally falls under the following heads: (1) statistics of this year's courses and students in sociology and philanthropy; (2) the growth of these studies during the last ten years; (3) a description of the best courses thus far developed; (4) a consensus of opinion as to definition, methods of teaching, etc.; and (5) the importance of these subjects, as testified to, not only by educators, but by the demands shown among students for them. It is possible that we shall be led to see in sociology a rival of the classics and physical sciences for the chief place of honor in an ideal education.

Number of Institutions Teaching Sociology.

From the four hundred and twenty-two colleges and universities written to, one hundred and forty-six replies were received. Of this number, twenty-nine have regular courses in sociology, using the

word in the looser sense to include charities and correction, while twenty-four have sociology proper, defining the term as the study of society. In other words, one-fifth of all the colleges reporting teach what they call sociology, while one-sixth have sociology strictly speaking. These figures do not include the institutions that give instruction in charities and correction or the science of society incidentally to ethics, economics, etc. Of this sort there are six more in sociology and twenty in charities and correction, some of which give quite extended instruction in these subjects. As regards the subjects of chief importance to this Conference, regular courses in charities and correction are reported by seventeen institutions; that is, by twelve per cent. of all the institutions reporting.

The fourteen leading women's colleges, as classified by the Bureau of Education, were written to also; but their replies are used only in the synopses of opinion that follow, not in the statistics of students and courses. It must be said, in passing, that they have had some of the best sociological work of the United States, one of the strongest men in the country undoubtedly being Professor Giddings, who goes this year from Bryn Mawr to Columbia College. Five of the eight women's colleges reporting have courses in sociology, some of them being well equipped; while four have courses in charities and correction.

One-half, or eleven, of the colleges reporting courses in sociology give the number of students, which ranges from eight to two hundred and fifty in each course, or an average of fifty. The number of students in courses in charities and correction ranges from eight to one hundred and nineteen, with an average of forty-three.

An Historical Sketch.

That there has been an increase of remarkable rapidity in sociological instruction within the last few years will be seen by comparing these figures with the courses of study in one hundred and one colleges and universities printed by the United States Bureau of Education five years ago. In that year only six of the institutions reporting had courses in sociology; that is, one-sixteenth of the total number, as compared with one-sixth at the present time. The institutions then teaching sociology were Yale, Williams, Cornell, Trinity, Tulane, and the University of Pennsylvania. Harvard

offered the same course as now, "Ethics of Social Reform," it being claimed that this was the earliest course in the country devoted to charities and correction.

From the fact that this was the only course in this subject in 1889 out of one hundred and one institutions, the report that forty-five courses were found three years previously in one hundred and three institutions, as made to the American Social Science Association, seems very questionable. My second circular letter was addressed particularly to these institutions, and I failed to find more than eight or ten which had either now or in the past the courses in question. The University of the State of Missouri replied, "More of this work, I fear, was reported on paper than was done in actual fact;" while President Green writes, "The subjects mentioned in the enclosed circular have never been taught in Cumberland University."

The evidence is clear at least as regards sociology proper. The first course entitled to that name dates back less than ten years; the number of courses has been quadrupled in the last five years, and has been perhaps doubled in the year just passed; while, as regards the immediate future, at least seven institutions have written me that they are planning to introduce the study soon.

The rapid increase of courses in sociology which we have found is not confined to America. The continent also which produced a Comte, a Spencer, a Schäffle, and a De Greef, is awakening to the supreme importance of this work in the university. The universities of Brussels, Paris, Berlin, Munich, Freiburg, Heidelberg, and many others, gave courses last year in sociology proper; while anthropology, so closely related to it, has for many years held a most honorable position abroad.

Charities and Correction.

As regards the history of courses in charities and correction alone, Mrs. Talbot wrote in 1886 in connection with the statistics already mentioned as follows: "These three topics — crime, vice, and charities — receive far less attention in our colleges and universities than the other topics of our schedule [economics, etc.]. The fact is due, doubtless, to the unformulated character of this department of social science. It is still in a state of empiricism, and

no fundamental principles have been as yet reached, or, at least, generally recognized and adopted as such."

Professor Peabody sends an interesting history of his course in charities and other social questions at Harvard. He says, "The teaching of ethics applied to social questions was begun by me in this university in 1880 in the Divinity School." The figures given for each year show an increase from seven students in 1881–82 to forty-eight in 1885–86, one hundred in 1888–89, and one hundred and thirty-three in 1892–93. This year's attendance is one hundred and nineteen. The number of hours per week has increased from one to three. He continues, "The present constitution of this course under our elective system is as follows: —

Graduate students		7
Divinity	"	20
Senior	"	55
Junior	"	24
Sophomore	"	2
Special	"	8
Scientific	"	3
		119

"There is a Students' Department Library of about four hundred and fifty volumes to which each member of the class has a key. A Paine fellowship of $500 is designed for students of these subjects. Two Paine prizes are offered at $100 each, one for a special research in some problem of charity, and one for a practical study of some aspect of the labor question."

Some Courses Described.

No adequate conception will be had of the importance sociology has reached in this country or its probable future without describing in some detail the vast variety of work going on in the Department of Social Science and Anthropology at the University of Chicago. There are already several times as many courses given there as at any other university in the world. There are in this department ten professors and instructors who teach in no other; namely, Small, Henderson, Bemis, Talbot, Starr, West, Thomas, Zeublin, Gentles, and Fulcomer. Of these, two give mainly University Ex-

tension lectures, one spending nearly his entire time outside of the city of Chicago. There are thirty-one courses of study given by these professors. Those in pure sociology are: —

22. The Methodology and Bibliography of Social Science.
23. Seminar. The Psychology, Ethics, and Sociology of Socialism.
24. The Province of Sociology, and its Relation to the Special Social Sciences.
25. Social Psychology.
26. The Organic Functions of the State and of Government.
27. Problems of Social Statics.
28. Problems of Social Dynamics.
29. The Sociology of the New Testament.
30. The Historical Sociologies.
31. The Elements of Sociology.

The courses of most importance to this conference are, among others given by Professor Henderson, the following: —

16. Social Treatment of Dependents and Defectives.— *Lectures, discussions, visits to institutions, reports. Second Term, Autumn Quarter.*

17. Criminology.— *Criminal anthropology and social treatment of crime. Lectures, visits of inspection, study of living cases, reports. Winter Quarter.*

18. Seminar.— *This will continue throughout the year, and will cover topics relating to all organization for promoting social welfare. Individual needs and tastes of students will be considered, but a system of research and analysis will control the work for the year.*

The seminar methods of work are of most value to specialists. There are no lectures or text-books, but each student puts the entire year on some subject worthy of publication, such as an investigation of the charities or the missions of the city. Much practical work is required in all these courses. This year, for instance, the most of the students have been visitors in charity work, have assisted Mr. Wines, and have taken censuses of the unemployed sleeping in the City Hall and of "Randall's Army."

Consensus of Views on Sociology.— Definition.

To return to the letters on sociology sent by me, among the questions asked were the following: —

"What is your definition of sociology [as used distinctively from the other social sciences]?" "How is it related to political economy, moral philosophy, etc.?"

The main reason for asking these questions was to be sure that the figures given me really referred to sociology, and that the term was not used in the inaccurate way which is very common. It was by no means supposed that the average definition would be the true one. What sociology is cannot be learned from the president of a Tennessee college, who said that "under ethics and economics, most of the substance of sociology is already taught," or from the Iowa president, who, when asked to name his text-books on charities and correction, the family, anthropology, and ethnology, answered, "The Bible." It is to the few specialists in the country that we look for definitions of any value. Among these we find at least two radically different views, the old and the new, which are intimated in President Finley's answer: "I am disposed to give 'sociology' the larger scope, considering it as the science of man in society, and not the science of dependency and delinquency, of the pauper and the criminal in 'society.'" Although the older English and American workers in charities and in other social reforms had reduced the term sociology from the broad meaning given to it by its inventor, Comte, as the science of society, to the science of abnormal society, the later specialists do not fall into this error. Professor Peabody, of Harvard, who has for many years been the most prominent instructor in social reforms, says: "Sociology is a much larger subject than the practical problems of charity and reform. If it can be taught at all, it may be taught quite apart from these. It is the philosophy of social evolution." Professor Henderson, the author of the best work on charities and correction, defines sociology in the larger sense as "the study which seeks to co-ordinate the processes and the results of the special social sciences. It aims to consider society as an organic unity; to study its movement as a whole, its purpose, the conditions of progress. It aims to show the legitimate place and dignity of each department of social investigation by considering it as a vital part of a vast and uniform movement of thought." One of the foremost professors of sociology, Giddings, of Columbia College, says: "Sociology is not an inclusive, it is the fundamental social science. It studies the elements that make up society . . . and the simplest forms in which they are combined or organized, (1) by composition (family, clan, tribe, nation), (2) by constitution; that is, involuntary organizations for co-operation or division of labor." The most agree in calling it "a comprehensive

science, including politics, economics, etc." Others call it "a science of sciences"; "the study of the social nexus that underlies the various phenomena that are included in the various departments of social science;" "it is the philosophy of all"; "it treats of the evolution of society in its broadest sense."

Relation of Charities to Sociology.

In answer to the question how charities and correction are "related to sociology, ethics, economics," etc., all the replies make a distinction between them. The general view is expressed by Professor Henderson, who says: "General sociology treats society in its normal light, social pathology studies morbid conditions, remedies, etc." Many regard these studies as "applications of the principles of ethics."

The general answer to the questions "Should they be taught separately from sociology?" and "before or after the latter?" is expressed by Professor Peabody, who says: "These social questions should be dealt with late in liberal education. They presuppose both ethics and economics. In my own course a student is advised to take both before coming to me, and must have taken one or the other." Professor Commons, of Indiana University, alone, would place them before, but says: "The organic nature of society should be constantly prominent."

Of the eighteen answers to the question, "Would you put sociology before or after political economy, ethics, etc.? Year?" two-thirds say "After," two "Before," and three make the same distinction as Professor Giddings, who says: "Logically, sociology precedes political economy; . . . . yet in the educational scheme political economy should be taught first, at least for the present." Professor Henderson says: "I would have a 'sketch' course in the Sophomore year of college and in the last year of Normal School work, and then ethics, economics, political science. In graduate work the subject can be taught again in its deeper and wider forms."

The opinion as to the best year for teaching these subjects is best indicated by the statistics received. Of the twenty-six institutions teaching sociology proper in 1894, sixteen designate the year. Nine of the sixteen put it in the Senior year. The Junior year comes next, with only two institutions. Courses in charities and

correction also are found for the most part in the Senior year, both in 1886 and in 1894.

The Importance of Sociology.

Question 20 asked: "Would you advise or require sociology as a part of a general education, defining it broadly as the study of society taken as a whole? Why?" Of the twenty-four who answered, not one replied in the negative, more than one-half expressed themselves strongly in its favor, and three would require it even as a common school study. The replies of the eleven presidents in this number are of interest, they being no doubt more impartial than those in charge of special departments. Six of these earnestly advise the study of sociology. One, the president of a Catholic institution, thinks it should be reserved for the university, and not the college period. The severest denunciation is that of the president of the University of Vermont, who says: "In my judgment, the so-called 'sociology' taught in our colleges, preached in our pulpits, and disseminated in our periodicals, is crude, semi-communistic, and harmful; and, until a new race of strong thinkers take hold of the subject in a new spirit, we shall make no real progress in either social science or social life." But the edge of his criticism is taken off when it becomes known that his institution was one of the earliest (1886) to give instruction in charities and correction "as a department of sociology."

Professors who teach economics are thought in some quarters to be critical of the new science; but the nine who answered this question all favor it, although one thinks the time has not yet arrived for it, and says, "Yes, when the universities have turned out a force of educators competent to direct the work, so that it will not fritter away in worthless study." A few would go as far in the opposite direction as Professor Commons, who says, "I should like to see history, economics, and sociology given equal place with language and science from the beginning of high school through to the Senior year of college." This energetic young professor is on a committee of the Teachers' Association of his State to investigate and promote the study of sociology and related subjects in the high schools. Professor Henderson takes the broad view that is gaining ground on the continent when he says: "I would advise that teachers be prepared to treat all the studies of

the primary and secondary schools in the sociologic spirit, but that text-books on sociology should not come in till the Sophomore year in college. In connection with all studies children and youth should be led gradually, as they are able, to take their place as members of the community. This begins in the kindergarten, and ends only with life."

Reasons for its Study.

A classification of the reasons assigned for the study discovers the following: —

(1) It is a practical preparation for life. Professor Thomas, of Baltimore, says: "I advise that sociology be made a part of every student's education. . . . No one is prepared for life who is ignorant of the laws that govern the social organism of which he is an integral part." The president of the University of Wyoming also would require it for the reason that "the rising generation will not be able to correctly solve the problems now arising in society and government without this educational training." This reason is the most common one given.

(2) "The culture possibilities of sociology, together with its immense practical importance, warrant the fullest attention to it." (Professor Powers, of Smith College.)

(3.) "The problems of sociology that are now agitating our civilization must not only be mastered by the leaders of the social reform, but they must be understood by everyday, honest, middle classes before any healthy and permanent solution can be obtained." (President Wagner, of Morgan College.) "Americans must soon meet anarchism, communism, and a score of wild theories of land, goods, and government." (Professor Ford, of Elmira College.)

(4) "Sociology is a help to economics and ethics." (Professor Weaver, De Pauw University.)

(5.) The professor-prophet of sociology, Herron, of Iowa College, must be put in a class by himself,— the ethico-religious. He answers: "Because man is a social being, because society is man, because the knowledge of how to live an associated life and how to express that life in actual human relations is the chief end of man, and, if one's creed be called in question, the only way to glorify God."

The Time Necessary for It.

The question, "How much time should be given to it?" brought out answers ranging from "Very little at present" to "So much as possible." The average amount suggested is about six months. The following expresses the minimum requirement: "I think that at least three months should be given to the study of sociology in all our undergraduate institutions. Of course, much more time should be given in post-graduate work." (President Johnson, University of Wyoming.) The number of months actually given to these studies in the institutions reporting to me this year averages as follows: sociology, five months, twenty-two institutions reporting; charities and correction, five months, fourteen institutions reporting. The length of the courses in the latter ranges from one and one-half to nine months, and of those in sociology from one and one-half months in some institutions to a total of forty-nine and one-half in the University of Chicago.

"What other studies could best be cut down to make room for it?" The answer is, "The ancient languages" four times as frequently as any other. Among the other studies named are economics, history, and mathematics. "Any subject pursued for a longer time than two years may well have a term taken from it rather than have a student graduate with no training in sociology," says Professor Freer, of Mt. Vernon, Iowa. Professor Herron would cut down mathematics or even omit biology. He says: "We can get through life without knowing much about beasts and snakes and toads, but it is becoming quite necessary that we know something about man." Several would solve the problem, not by cutting down anything, but by making sociology elective.

Importance of Instruction in Charities.

The answers to the question, "What place should these subjects [charities and correction] have in education?" were all in favor of them. Although some said: "It depends on the institution," or "They are of changing importance," more called them "very important," and "an essential part of a liberal education." President Mosher says, "I can think of but few subjects that I think would

be of greater practical importance to our country than these would be if they could be taught by the laboratory method." Professor Commons would put them "along with the elements of political economy in high schools." Their need to specialists is admirably represented by Professor Henderson, who says: "Every man or woman who intends to engage in the work of charity should study the scientific principles and methods of charity. Those who expect to deal with criminals or to write and speak on prison reform and prevention of crime and vice should give some systematic study to this subject. We have arranged to give double time to those who wish to specialize at this point."

The answers of Professor Small, as given below, tersely cover the main points of the investigation, and may be taken as representing the high-water mark of sociological thought.

Definition.— "Sociology is the philosophy of human welfare. As such, it must be the synthesis of all the particular social sciences."

"Would you advise it . . . as part of a general education?"

Answer.— "Yes, in general, in the descriptive parts to prepare the way for history, political economy, political science, and ethics."

"How much time should be given to it?"

Answer.— "Last half of Sophomore year and first half of Junior. I would have a half-year at the end of the Senior year devoted to philosophical sociology after a study of the special social sciences."

"What other studies could best be cut down?"

Answer.— "Latin, Greek, and mathematics."

"What place have charities and correction in education?"

Answer.— "Co-ordinate with political economy for general students."

"How are they related to sociology?"

Answer.— "As pathology to physiology."

"Should they be taught before or after the latter?"

Answer.— "After or contemporary."

Students demand these Courses.

We have seen the importance of sociology demonstrated both from the united testimony of educators and from the rapidity of its adoption into colleges and universities. If any further evidence is necessary, it is forthcoming from the student's side. So far as statistics

can be brought to this inquiry, sociology is shown to have already reached the first rank in popularity. The only place in which a fair comparison can be made is in the Graduate School of the University of Chicago, where this department is put upon an equality with all others, and where students are free to elect it. The two hundred and thirty-two graduate students attending in the autumn quarter of 1893 would give an average of eight or nine to each department, while the Department of Social Science had twenty. More students have chosen it for their specialty — that is, their major work — than have gone into any other study with the exception of English and history, each of which excel it by only one student. The theological students who have chosen courses outside of their specialties are almost exclusively in social science, there being twenty-two in this department, but only four in all other departments combined.

The showing for this department as to the number of professors and courses given during that quarter is much the same. Sociology had eight courses, as compared with an average of six in other departments, and five professors as compared with an average of three and one-half. During the year there were thirty courses in this department, while the other humanities offered only the following: political economy, nineteen; political science, sixteen; history, forty-eight; philosophy, fifteen; comparative religion, four; and ethics, three.

Hardly any of the courses in social science can be taken by Juniors and Seniors; but the fact that sixty-six per cent. of them in this one quarter have elected the humanities, or the studies of man, of which social science is the culmination, makes the argument complete.

If we turn to courses in charities and correction alone, we find these also among the most popular courses in the institution. The attendance on them is more than twice that of the average course.

Conclusion.

This paper has been all of fact, none of theory. There are many questions that remain to be discussed; but they must be left to other speakers, and, indeed, in part to future years. What is the relation of charities and correction to sociology? What preparation

is necessary for work in this field? Are the needs properly met by training schools and by other existing institutions? What changes, if any, will the systematic study of society make in the related fields of economics, ethics, education, or government?

In view of the difficulty and the importance of the task, he is a fool who presumes to answer with authority. Were it not that I have something more to suggest than others have said, I should not add my opinion to theirs.

But the best of my prevision for the present is this: that education will some day be considered the most important function of society, and the study of mankind the most important part of education; that the college education of the future is not to centre around the ancient languages nor the physical sciences, but the humanities; that they will be the key-note of the public school as well as of the college; that all questions affecting man, as charities and correction, will be seen to depend upon a broad and scientific conception of the whole; that the evils done in the name of charity will largely disappear with increasing knowledge of that most complex of all studies, — the science of mankind; that the curing of dependency and crime will be subordinated in large part to its prevention; and that the need for specialists will be seen in all divisions of social labor as well as now in industry and commerce.

STATISTICS OF INSTRUCTION IN SOCIOLOGY.

Including Charities and Correction.

Explanation of marks used: —

Course 1,— Punishment and Reform of Criminals.
Course 2,— Prevention of Vice (intemperance, prostitution, vagrancy, etc.).
Course 3,— Public and Private Charities (care of the poor, insane, blind, idiotic, deaf-mute, foundlings, orphans, etc.).
Course 4,— Sociology (in the strict sense).

Marks in "College Year" columns: —

1, 2, 3, and 4,— Freshman, Sophomore, etc., year.
5,— Post-graduate.
6,— Law school.
7,— Medical school.
a,— Preparatory department.
i,— Taught incidentally.
x,— Year not stated.
—,— Not taught.
blank,— Unknown.
¼ (*e.g.*),— Freshman *and* Senior years.
1–4 (*e.g.*),— Freshman *to* Senior year.
p,— School of Political Science.
¼ —Senior *or* Junior year.

State.	Name of Institution.	Course.	1886	1894.			
			College Year.	College Year.	Months. Elective.	Months. Required.	Number of students.
Arkansas	Little Rock University	1	4				
California	University of the Pacific	1	x				
"	California College			—			
"	Leland Stanford, Jr., University	1–4		x			
"	Santa Clara College			—			
"	University of Southern California	2	2				
Colorado	University of Colorado			—			
Connecticut	Trinity College			—			
"	Yale University	1–3	—	i			
"	" "	4		4	9		250
District of Columbia	Howard University	1	x				
" " "	Columbian University	1–3	—				
Florida	John B. Stetson University			—			
"	Florida Conference College			—			
Georgia	Atlanta University	2	a				
"	Emory College			—			
"	Clark University			—			
Illinois	Hedding College			—			
"	Illinois Wesleyan University	3	3				
"	Carthage College			—			
"	University of Chicago	1	—	3–5	1½		15
"	" " "	2–3	—	3–5	3		20
"	" " " Course 23	4		5	9		9
"	" " " " 24	4		5	3		17
"	" " " " 27	4		5	9		18
"	" " " " 14	4		5	9		14
"	" " " " 15	4		3–5	1½		15
"	" " " " 25	4		5	3		21
"	" " " " 26	4		5	3		20
"	" " " " 18	4		3–5	1½		33

State.	Name of Institution.	Course.	1886. College year.	1894. College Year.	Months. Elective.	Months. Required.	Number of students.
Illinois (*continued*)	University of Chicago Course 19	4		3–5	1½		18
"	" " " " 22	4		5	1½		~
"	" " " " 20	4		3–5	1½		~
"	" " " " 30	4		3–5	3		
"	" " " " 31	4		3–5	3		
"	Eureka College		—	—			
"	North-western University		—	—			
"	Ewing College		—	—			
"	Northern Illinois College		—	—			
"	German-English College	1–3	i	i			
"	Knox College	1–3		i			
"	" (1895)	4	—	4	6		
"	Lake Forest University		—				
"	Illinois College	1–3	4	4			
"	McKendree College		—				
"	Monmouth College		—	—			
"	North-western College		—	—			
"	Chaddock College	1	4				
"	" "	3	4				
"	Shurtleff College		—				
"	University of Illinois	1–3	—	¾	3		
"	" " "	4		x			
"	Westfield College	1–3	—				
"	Wheaton College	2	4				
Indiana	Indiana University	1	¾	¾	} 4		
"	" "	2–3	x	¾			
"	" "	4	x	¾	5		20
"	Franklin College	3	—	i			
"	De Pauw University	3		i			
"	" " "	4		2–4	8		100
"	Hanover College	1–2	i	—			
"	"	3	i	x	x		15
"	Hartsville College		—				
"	Butler University	1	4				
"	Earlham College		—				
Iowa	German-English College			—			
"	Amity College		—				
"	Des Moines College			—			
"	Drake University	2	a				
"	Parsons College		—	—			
"	Upper Iowa University		—	—			
"	Iowa College	4		¾	9		48
"	Lenox College	1–3		i			
"	State University of Iowa	1–3	—				
"	Iowa Wesleyan University			—			
"	Cornell College	1–2	4	—			
"	Oskaloosa College			—			
"	Central University of Iowa			—			
"	Tabor College		—				
"	Western College			—			
Kansas	University of Kansas	1–3		x	5		
"	" " "	4		x			
"	St. Mary's College			—			
"	Kansas Wesleyan University			—			
"	Washburn College		—				
Kentucky	Berea College	1–2	4				
"	Center College of Kentucky	1–3	i				
"	Ogden College		—	—			
"	Kentucky Military Institute	1–2	2				
"	Georgetown College		—				
"	St. Mary's College			—			
Louisiana	Louisiana State University			—			

State.	Name of Institution.	Course.	1886. College year.	1894. College Year.	Months. Elective.	Months. Required.	Number of students.
Louisiana (*continued*)	Centenary College of Louisiana	2	1	—			
"	Keatchie College			—			
"	Leland University			—			
"	New Orleans University			—			
"	Tulane University of Louisiana			—			
Maine	Bowdoin College	1–3	—	4	3		
"	" "	4		4	3		
"	Colby University	1–3	1	1			43
"	" "	4		4	2½		
Maryland	St. John's College	3–4		1			
"	Johns Hopkins University	1	5	x			
"	" " "	3	5	x			
"	Morgan College			—			
"	Rock Hill College	3	1–4				
Massachusetts	Amherst College	1–2	4				
"	Boston University	1–3	7				
"	Harvard University	1	x	—			119
"	" "	2	x	3–5	9		
"	" "	3	x	3–5	9		
"	" "	4		x	9		
"	French Protestant College			—			
"	Tufts College	1–2		2–4	5		
"	" "	3	1	—			
"	Williams College	1–3	1	1			80
"	" "	4		¾		6	
"	Clark University			—			
"	College of the Holy Cross			—			
Michigan	Alma College	4		1	4		
"	University of Michigan	1–2	—	1			
"	" " "	3	x	1			
"	Battle Creek College	1–3	—	—			
"	Benzonia College	4		1			
"	Hillsdale College	1	1	1			15
"	" "	2	3	1	3		
"	" "	3	4	1			
"	Western Michigan College	1–3		1			
"	" " "	4		x			
Minnesota	University of Minnesota	1–2	—	1			
"	" " "	3	4	1			150
"	" " "	4		4	3		
"	Dr. Martin Luther College			—			
"	Carleton College	3	4	—			
"	Parker College			—			
Missouri	St Vincent's College			—			
"	University of the State of Missouri	1	6	—			
"	" " "	2–3	4	—			
"	" " "	4		—			
"	Central College	1	4	1			
"	" "	2	—	1			
"	" "	3	4	1			
"	Pritchett School Institute			—			
"	Harris College			—			
"	Western College			—			
"	William Jewell College	1–3	1				
"	Missouri Valley College			—			
"	Park College			—			
"	Washington University	1–3	1	—			
"	Drury College	1	4	—			
"	Stewartsville College		—				
"	Tarkio College			—			
"	Central Wesleyan College			—			
Nebraska	Doane College			—			

State.	Name of Institution.	Course.	1886. College year.	1894. College Year.	Months. Elective.	Months. Required.	Number of students.
Nebraska (*continued*)	Cotner University		—	—			
"	Creighton College		—	—			
Nevada	University of Nevada			—			
New Hampshire	Dartmouth College		—	—			
New Jersey	Rutgers College	1–3	i	—			
" "	College of New Jersey			—			
New York	Alfred University			—			
"	Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn			—			
"	Chautauqua College	1–3		x	1½		
"	" "	4		x	1½		
"	Hamilton College			—			
"	Elmira College	4		3		5	
"	Colgate University			—			
"	Cornell University	1	¾	x			
"	" "	2	¾	x	9		45
"	" "	3	—	x			
"	" "	4		x	9		45
"	College of the City of New York	1–3	i	—			
"	Columbia College	1–2	p	x	5		
"	" "	3	p	x	5		
"	" "	4		x	5		
"	University of Rochester	1–3	4	—			
"	Union University		—				
"	Syracuse University	1, 3	4				
"	Davidson College			—			
North Dakota	University of North Dakota	3–4		i			
Ohio	Buchtel College		—				
"	Mount Union College			—			
"	Ohio University	1–2	3	—			
"	Baldwin University			—			
"	St. Xavier College			—			
"	University of Cincinnati		—				
"	Capital University			—			
"	Ohio State University			—			
"	Ohio Wesleyan University	1–3	i	i			
"	" " "	4		4		x	85
"	Kenyon College		—	—			
"	Hiram College	2–3	i	—			
"	Marietta College			—			
"	Franklin College			—			
"	Rio Grande College			—			
"	Urbana University	1	4				
"	Wilberforce University	1	4				
"	University of Wooster	1–2	i				
Oregon	Pacific University	1	4				
"	" "	2	2				
"	Willamette University	4		3		10	
Pennsylvania	Western University of Pennsylvania		—	—			
"	Lebanon Valley College			—			
"	Geneva College			—			
"	Lafayette College	4		i			
"	Haverford College	4		4	8		8
"	Franklin and Marshall College	1–3	4	i	9		
"	" " " "	4		4	9		
"	Central Pennsylvania College			—			
"	Westminster College			—			
"	University of Pennsylvania	1	3	—			
"	" " "	3	¾	i			
"	Swarthmore College	1–3		4	4		8
"	Washington and Jefferson College		—	—			
Rhode Island	Brown University	1	4	¾	6		80

State.	Name of Institution.	Course.	1886	1894.			
			College Year.	College Year.	Months. Elective.	Months. Required.	Number of students.
Rhode Island (*cont'd*)	Brown University	2	4	¾	6		80
"	" "	3	1	¾	6		80
"	" "	4		¾	3		80
"	" "			14	3		15
South Carolina	College of Charleston			—			
"	Presbyterian College of So. Carolina			—			
"	Allen University			—			
"	University of South Carolina	1	6				
"	Furman University			—			
South Dakota	Pierre University			—			
" "	University of South Dakota			—			
Tennessee	U. S. Grant University	1	¾				
"	" " " "	2	3				
"	Knoxville College			—			
"	University of Tennessee	1–3	1	1			
"	Cumberland University	1–2	6	—			
"	Maryville College	2–3		1			
"	Christian Brothers' College		—				
"	Central Tennessee College	1–3	1	—			
"	Fisk University			—			
"	University of the South	2–3	1				
Texas	South-western University			—			
"	Add-Ran Christian University			—			
Vermont	University of Vermont	3	4	4	x		
"	" " "	4		x	5		
"	Middlebury College		—	—			
Virginia	Randolph-Macon College	3		1			
"	Hampden-Sidney College	1–3	1				
"	Washington and Lee University	1	6	—			
"	Roanoke College	2–3	4				
Washington	Colfax College			—			
"	Whitman College			—			
Wisconsin	Beloit College			—			
"	Milton College			—			
"	University of Wisconsin		—	—			
"	Ripon College		—	—			
"	Seminary of St. Francis of Sales			—			
Wyoming	University of Wyoming	4		1			

COLLEGES FOR WOMEN. FOURTEEN WERE WRITTEN.

Maryland	Women's College of Baltimore	1–3		3		4	30
"	" " " "	4		3		6	30
Massachusetts	Radcliffe College	4		x	10		4
"	Smith College	1		¾	2½		
"	" "	3		¾	3		25
"	" "	4		¾	2½		
"	Wellesley College			—			
New York	Wells College			—			
"	Elmira College	1–3		x			
"	" "	4		3		5	
"	Vassar College	1	¾	4	4		35
"	" "	2–3	x				
Pennsylvania	Bryn Mawr College	4		4	8		10

[Enclosed in Circular Letter to All Colleges.]

SOCIOLOGY.

SCHEDULE NO. 1.

.....State and town or city.

.....Institution.

.....Name of officer making report.

Please answer at least Columns I. and II., underscoring the subjects taught. In filling out Column IV., denote the preparatory department by "p," post-graduate by "g," Freshman year by "1," Sophomore year by "2," etc.

I. Give Text-book in:	II. No. of Months. Required.	III. No. of Months. Elective.	IV. In what Year?	V. No. of Students.
1. Political economy				
2. Economic movements (the labor question, socialism, etc.)				
3. Political science (theory of government, etc.)				
4. Law (international, etc.)				
5. History				
6. Education (theory, social significance, etc.)				
7. Charities and correction (defectives, crime, intemperance, etc.)				
8. The family; divorce				
9. Anthropology and ethnology				
10. Statistics				
11. The industrial and fine arts (as a social study)				
12. Any other social science				
13. Sociology, as different from each of the above (perhaps inclusive of all) . . .				

14. What is your definition of sociology as used in Question 13?
15. How is it related to political economy, moral philosophy, etc.?
16. When was it first taught in your institution? What changes since, in professors, books, etc.?
17. If you do not have it now, is its introduction proposed or decided upon?
18. What institution gave the first course in sociology to your knowledge?
19. Can you give the address of any educator favoring its introduction into the public schools?
20. Would you advise or require sociology as a part of a general education, defining it broadly as the study of society taken as a whole? Why?
21. If so, how much time should be given to it?
22. What other studies could be best cut down to make room for it?
23. Would you put it before or after political economy, ethics, etc.? Year?

To Daniel Fulcomer, *University of Chicago.*

[Second Circular Letter.]

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

April 16, 1894.

Dear Sir,—Your institution was reported in 1886 to be giving instruction in the subjects named below. As I am to read a paper on College and University Instruction in Charities and Correction at the May meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, I should like to report just what you are doing now. Will you kindly indicate this in the following schedule? If you can also answer the appended questions, your contribution will be especially gratifying.

Underscore the Subjects taught.	In what Year?	No. of months. Required.	No. of months. Elective.	No. of Students.
1. Punishment and reform of criminals . .				
2. Prevention of vice (intemperance, prostitution, vagrancy, etc.)				
3. Public and private charities (care of the poor, insane, blind, idiotic, deaf-mute, foundlings, orphans, etc.)				

4. What place should these subjects have in education? Why?
5. How are they related to sociology, ethics, economics, etc.?
6. Should they be taught before or after the latter?
7. Should they be taught separately from sociology?
8. When were they first taught in your institution? What changes since, in professors, books, etc.

Very respectfully yours, Daniel Fulcomer.

THE RELATION OF STATISTICS TO SOCIAL SCIENCE.

BY WALTER F. WILLCOX, CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

All science has grown out of practical needs, and finds its reason for existence in subserving the wants of the community. As Bacon says, "The real and legitimate goal of the sciences is the endowment of human life with new inventions and riches." Many students are so impressed with the practical bearings of the science they are working upon that they apply themselves only to those features of it which promise to yield immediate fruit. There are many such students of social science, the practical workers, the persons in the field. But the human mind has, also, an instinctive tendency toward theory, and a tendency to exaggerate the importance of anything it once desired as a means to some further good, until that means is regarded as an end. The miser, at first, seeks gold for the goods it can secure him. Later he comes to gloat over it as a hoarded treasure, loved for itself. So the human race began the search for knowledge, in order to obtain from this source a guide in its action. Many men come to love it as a treasure in itself, as an intellectual hoard. It is well that this should be so; for no student can tell in advance what scientific investigation will prove practically fruitful, and one influenced by considerations of utility alone may overlook just the path he should take to reach conclusions of practical worth. It sounds like a paradox, and yet it is true, that in this respect the race can find its goal only by forgetting to seek for it. We may roughly divide the students in the field of social science, then, into those who make it an end and those who make it a means, the theorists and the practical workers. To be sure, every person should be both; but, almost inevitably, emphasis is laid on one side or the other. Those whom I have ventured to group as the theorists may be further roughly classified into two divisions, whom I may call the philosophers and the scientists. The former are distinguished by a turn for speculation and a fondness for broad generalization: the latter are characterized by a turn for verification and

a fondness for detailed investigation. Here, again, the difference is mainly one of emphasis. Every person is and should be something of a philosopher and something of a scientist, as well as something of a man of action; yet in one this side of their nature, and in another that, is the more strongly developed.

Social science, I believe, is not so full grown that broad and trustworthy generalizations or laws within its limits are reached or even possible as yet. The social philosophers, therefore, have found themselves somewhat at a loss for the means of carrying out their bent. In default of any sufficient material within their special field, some of them have sought to import generalizations from without, and impose them upon social science as expressions of its highest laws. History, physics, and biology have been laid under contribution. So Auguste Comte sought to supplement the physics of the heavenly bodies, or astronomy, the physics of masses on the earth, or physics in a narrower sense, the physics of atoms and molecules, or chemistry, the physics of cells and organs, or biology, by a physics of human beings living in groups, which he called social physics, or sociology, while from history he drew his great and fundamental law of the three successive states, theological, metaphysical, and positive, or scientific. So, too, Mr. Spencer entered the field of sociology with a generalization, his formula of evolution, derived from biology. To quote his own words: "The truth which Harvey's embryological inquiries first dimly indicated, which was afterwards more clearly perceived by Wolff, and which was put into a definite shape by von Baer,—the truth that all organic development is a change from a state of homogeneity to a state of heterogeneity,—this it is from which very many of the conclusions which I now hold have indirectly resulted." He says further, "Organic and social evolutions conform to the same law," and elsewhere, "That which the German physiologists have found to be a law of organic development is a law of all development." The kernel of his fundamental formula of evolution is thus seen to be transferred from biology to social science.

While the social philosophers have been occupied with theories and speculations, of which the foregoing are familiar examples, the social scientists have been occupied largely with statistics. This method of study grew up about two centuries ago in England, fostered by the influence of the Royal Society of London, and the

methods of observation and experiment that illustrious body did so much to encourage and disseminate. Statistics thus originated in the effort to adapt to the study of society methods similar to those which were proving so effective in the study of nature. The connection between natural science and statistics was illustrated in the seventeenth century by Edmund Halley, the friend of Newton. His name calls to our mind, on the one side, the comet whose return he predicted, and, on the other, that method of computing a table of mortality on which annuity and life insurance companies were long based. The connection has been illustrated again in the present century by Quetelet, the Belgian astronomer and statistician. It is expressed in the saying of Sir John Herschel, "Numerical precision is the very soul of science; and its attainment affords the only criterion, or at least the best, of the truth of theories."

There should be no quarrel, no feeling of separation, between these three groups of students, the practical workers, the social scientists, and the social philosophers. Each needs and in some measure depends upon the other two: each answers to a permanent demand of human nature. Social science must lead up to and culminate in a social philosophy, while social philosophy will throw a harmonizing and unifying light back over the special investigations of social science, and both together constitute a test whereby all plans for individual and social improvement must be tried. On the other hand, practical work is the only way of keeping the theorists face to face with the facts, or, as Bacon puts it, of ballasting the understanding to prevent its jumping or flying.

It may seem strange that the social scientists are spoken of as so occupied in the study of statistics. To make the reason for it plain, a brief consideration of the nature of statistics is necessary.

Statistics is a method of study. Its characteristic is to count all the things or events of a certain kind, and to derive by induction from the results of this counting all the inferences that seem warranted. Statistics is mathematical only so far as it uses the simpler mathematical processes and the calculus of probabilities. It is not at all mathematical in the sense that its conclusions have a mathematical or demonstrated certainty. It is essentially a branch of observation, not a method of deduction from assumed axioms such as those usually laid down at the beginning of a geometry; and it labors under all the dangers of observation in its other forms. It is

possible to apply the statistical method to any branch of study. Both nature and man are open to its scrutiny. But the method finds its most important applications in the study of man, and especially in the study of men organized into societies. Consider for a moment the reason for this difference. In the realm of nature one unit of observation is substantially like another. A mass of iron is substantially the same wherever found, and only a single accurate experiment is needed to reveal its nature. To be sure, iron varies its qualities in no slight degree under different conditions of heat, magnetic force, etc.; but the important variations of this sort may themselves soon be learned. To ascertain the qualities of a piece of iron, A, then, all that is necessary is to put another piece, B, under like conditions, and observe the qualities it manifests. So the physicist does not need to observe each separate piece of iron directly.

But, when we turn to the social sciences, where the individual human being with all his peculiarities of temperament and training is the unit of observation, no amount of study of unit B will give us such an insight into the nature of unit A as may be gained in the natural world. Each unit must be directly observed. In other words, in the natural sciences each unit is a type of its class. In the social sciences each unit, each human personality, is individual. While, therefore, the method of the natural sciences might be expressed by the phrase "Ab uno disce omnes,"—"From one learn all,"—this method applied to the social sciences would be as misleading as if Dido, following the advice of Æneas, had inferred the character of all the Greeks from that of perjured Sinon. Over against the "Ab uno disce omnes" may be set an antithetic phrase to express the aim of the statistical method, "Ab omnibus disce totum,"—from an examination of every element and a comparison of the results learn the characteristics of the whole. The statistical method is thus seen to bear to the social sciences a relation somewhat analogous to that between the experimental method and the natural sciences; and for this reason the social scientist should be something of a statistician, as the natural scientist should be something of an experimenter. Each method is in its appropriate field a means of checking, modifying, and correcting the speculations of the human reason in its effort to reflect external reality.

Courses that give training in statistical methods should be offered,

accordingly, to students of the various branches of social science, just as laboratory courses are now offered to beginners in the various natural sciences. When one reflects that not seventy years ago, in response to the strenuous efforts of Liebig, the first university laboratory of chemistry was built in Germany, and that the great revolution in the teaching of natural science has come within the last fifty years, the thought opens a wide vista of possible improvements in the study and teaching of the social sciences within the coming fifty years. Why may not the psychological laboratories already springing up for the study of the individual man be complemented by sociological laboratories? But, indeed, these already exist, at least in the germ. For what are our various charity organization societies, our bureaus of labor, of vital statistics, of health, of census, etc., if not sociological laboratories, wherein the facts and generalizations regarding our social life are sought and found? Is not the rapid multiplication of such offices in all civilized countries a change somewhat like the increase of the laboratories devoted to the investigation of problems of natural science?

May I raise the question here whether most such offices in this country are fully aware of the services they might render to social science, and are prepared to do really careful and scientific work? As a result of not a little study of publications from public offices of this sort,—and the public offices are the most numerous and important,—it seems to me that those in which the work is done in a scholarly and scientific manner are in a small minority, and that perhaps in none is the work beyond even very considerable improvement. How is this desirable improvement to be secured? Would not a closer relation between these various sociological laboratories and the colleges and universities in their vicinity contribute powerfully to this end? Each side, apparently, has something by which the other would profit. The history of statistics, the logical theories on which its methods are based, the comparison of methods employed by different students or in different lines of investigation, the criticism of results, all these sides of the subject can best be represented in a college or university. The problems of practical administration, the preparation of an investigation that shall be fruitful, the consideration and elimination of errors,—all these can be learned only in an official bureau. That the project for a closer union than now exists is not a visionary one is shown by the way

in which the universities and the official bureaus of statistics on the continent of Europe co-operate. And that such a need is felt, not only by our teachers, but also by those whose training in these directions has been confined largely to the practical work of a statistical office, is best shown from the words of our most eminent statistician in public life, Hon. Carroll D. Wright. In a plea made a few years ago for the fuller study of statistics in our colleges he said, "There has not been a single day in the fourteen years that I have devoted to practical statistics that I have not felt the need, not only in myself, but in the office where my work has been carried on, of statistical training." College work and office work in statistics might supplement one another, as law school work and law office work now do. At present we are apparently in a stage of educational development in regard to statistics, like that of the study of law before the rise of our law schools, when the student was obliged to learn that profession by office work and solitary reading alone.

The union of these two lines of work, the theory and the practice, in some form seems especially feasible in those States where the government makes public provision for higher education at a State university, and where it is clearly the duty of the university to increase in every possible way the scientific value of all work, and especially all work upon social questions, now carried on by the State. In most of this group of States the room for improvement is very marked.

Granting, then, the desirability of such a union, how may it be secured? Where the officers in charge of such work in the vicinity of a college are able and willing to do so, they might be invited to give lectures before the students on the practical aspects of their work, and, on the other side, the teachers of such subjects might take the opportunity in their vacation to study in some of these offices. From personal experience I can testify that they will be received with cordiality, and will be able to learn about their subject much that is not to be found in books. Perhaps in some instances a closer connection than this might be found desirable. In Germany, for example, a university teacher of statistics is sometimes attached in some capacity to a statistical bureau, or an officer in a statistical bureau is also a university lecturer on statistics.

But the foregoing are suggestions that under present conditions it

may be impossible to carry out. In every town or city, however, will be found some accessible records of social importance, untabulated or uninterpreted; and from these a class in social statistics may be trained to practical work in scrutinizing, correcting, and interpreting them. In default of anything better, the material afforded by the college and university publications for a series of years has been found available. The region from which the students are drawn, their average age, the length of their stay, the proportion who graduate, may be investigated; and in the course of the study many of the questions of method and procedure arise that would be involved if the statistics of the whole country were included. The essential point is to begin with a subject in which the interest of the students has been already aroused, and to teach the class to apply the new method so as to elicit new and valuable results. After a little preliminary training of this sort, larger subjects may be approached, in which the data are drawn from published volumes of statistics.

If the general public deems such courses in our higher institutions of learning valuable and desirable, it may aid materially in developing them. Such students, on finishing their work, ought to be able to improve the character of the publications now being issued from many of our official bureaus. If they cannot improve that work, their training has been, in part at least, a failure. The publications of these offices, however, will not be improved unless, on the one hand, the public vigorously demands it, and, on the other, the colleges train students to take clerkships and ultimately, by promotion, higher positions in these offices. The colleges are beginning to train such men. It remains for the public to decide whether they ought to be given employment. At present students of political economy and social science have little opportunity to support themselves through their studies in any other field than that of teaching, and this field does not afford room for all the young and promising graduates. Is there not in this suggestion an opening for turning such graduates to public use in another line? I cannot enforce my proposal in any stronger way than by quoting a second time from Commissioner Wright. "I would urge upon the government of the United States, and upon the government of the States, the necessity of providing by law for the admission of students that have taken scientific courses in statistics as honorary

attachés of, or clerks to be employed in, the practical work of statistical offices."

Whether the suggestion that students might be trained thereby for official statistical work prove fruitful or not, there can be no question that such a course brings one into contact with the facts of our social, industrial, and economic life as hardly anything else can, and so gives a sense of concrete reality to the work in political economy and social science that is a wholesome corrective to premature theorizing, and lays a firm basis of fact on which opinions and conclusions may gradually spring up and ripen. This reason alone is amply sufficient to warrant its introduction and maintenance in the curricula of our colleges and universities.

V.

Training Schools for Nurses.

THEORY AND PRACTICE.

BY AGNES S. BRENNAN,

SUPERINTENDENT NEW YORK TRAINING SCHOOL, BELLEVUE HOSPITAL.

Twenty-one years ago it was said in New York that "no refined, educated woman could go through the severe practical training required to fit her to enter the profession of a trained nurse," whereas to-day in some of our schools a faint echo of the cry for higher education of women is heard. We take it as a sign of the times, but hope that, when taking up the higher, the lower education of women will not be neglected. The young woman who enters a training school is supposed to do so for the purpose of becoming at the end of two or three years' training a thoroughly efficient nurse and an intelligent assistant to the attending physician or surgeon; and the aim of all good schools is in every way to help, assist, and train the pupils to become such.

Now, no woman of education and refinement would spend two years in a large city hospital (and only those who have done so can understand what that means) unless she had some compensation in the form of theoretical teaching and study.

An uneducated woman may become a good nurse, but never an intelligent one. She can obey orders conscientiously, and understand thoroughly a sick person's needs; but, should an emergency arise, where is she? She works through her feelings, and therefore lacks judgment.

We have all heard of, and no doubt have met, the nurse who was "born, not made," as is the artist and musician. But it takes years of patient study in either profession before one can excel; and the cool hand and light touch which are popularly supposed to belong to

these heaven-born nurses will count for little if they cannot mix solutions or give an intelligent report of symptoms and results.

In this progressive age training schools cannot afford to stand still any more than other schools and colleges; and each year the graduates should be more skilled, more cultured, and for this reason more practical. A nurse can always take better care of a patient if she understands the pathology of the disease her patient is suffering from. When typhoid, under no consideration would she allow him to help himself, neither would she in pneumonia turn him on his well side, etc.; and I hold that all persons in charge of pupil nurses should strive to give a reason for and explain why this is done or that is not done in each individual case.

The usual length of training is two years; and in that time much has to be learned both practically and theoretically, but we must discriminate, and not sacrifice one for the other.

I have heard the study of the microscope advocated as necessary for the thorough education of the pupil nurse. I acknowledge it to be a most interesting and instructive study, but one that requires a great deal of time and much patience. So, unless the hospital be a small one, and the patients few, the pupil nurse will not have the necessary time to devote to it, and would gain much more useful experience if she spent the half-hour she had to spare for studying the character of the pulse in the different patients in the ward, or finding out just why some nurses can always see at a glance that this patient requires her pillow turned or the next one her position changed.

These are all simple things, necessary to the comfort and well-being of the patient, wherein the microscope cannot help, no matter how proficient the nurse may be in its use. And, should the pupil practise her profession after graduating, she will find that even at a private case she has no time to use it. Neither would the attending physician expect her to any more than he would to diagnose the case or write prescriptions.

In the universities and colleges of the world the intention now is to make the teaching far more practical than heretofore. This is particularly so in medical colleges. We all know that the young physician (who most likely has stood first, and taken all the honors of his class), when he enters the hospital as *interne*, is utterly unfitted, in spite of his splendid theoretical knowledge, to put into practice what he can so fluently discuss.

Now, with the nurse it is different; and just here the word "trained" comes in. From the very first day she enters the school, she begins with the practical, and takes up the theoretical to enable her to give intelligent care to her patients, and to expand her mind by contact with greater minds, in lectures and books, not in any way to make her pedantic or superficial, but to fit her for immediate usefulness when she is graduated. Theory in conjunction with practice is what we want; and, although it is undeniable that theory has done more to elevate nursing than any amount of clinical practice *alone* could have done, still we must remember that "too much reading tends to mental confusion."

Practice helps to impress and retain in the memory the knowledge obtained by theory, otherwise forgotten without the practical application. Any one who has been ill knows that the height of good nursing consists principally in what is done for the patient's comfort, outside of the regular orders. A theoretical nurse performs her duty in a perfunctory manner, and may carry out the doctor's orders to the letter; but the patient recognizes there is something lacking, and we know that it is the skilled touch, the deft handling, the keenness to detect changes and symptoms, the ready tact, the patience, the power of controlling her feelings and temper, self-reliance, the kindly sympathy for the sorrowing, and the peculiar power of soothing suffering which can be acquired only by much practice; and a nurse without these attributes, despite her wide theoretic knowledge and teaching, will never be a successful one.

Now, with our superior intelligence and advantages, we must not ignore the necessity of possessing a large amount of *good, plain common sense* to form a basis for the education of our nurses, which will hold the theoretical and practical training in a state of equilibrium. Theory fortifies the practical: practice strengthens and retains the theoretical.

DISTRICT NURSING.

BY EDITH S. BRENT, BROOKLYN, N.Y.

In this the latter part of a century which may well be termed "philanthropic," much is being done in every possible way to alleviate the sufferings and improve the condition of those among us who, by force of circumstances or reverses of fortune, are unable, whether by fault of their own or not, to help themselves.

Among the many branches of work stretching forth on every side to reach the needs of struggling and wretched humanity, district nursing is taking a prominent place.

Though comparatively new in this country, it has taken a strong foothold, and gives great promise of a bright and prosperous future. Already many of our large American cities have taken up this work with enthusiasm, New York, through the agency of the City Mission and Tract Society, becoming the pioneer in 1877. Some years later Boston, Chicago, and Philadelphia, recognizing the distinct need of such work among the poor, organized in quick succession their District Nursing Associations. Brooklyn, through the medium of the Red Cross Society, has been striving for some time past to supply the several districts of the city with trained nurses to work among the sick poor; but as yet its efforts have not met with the success it so richly deserves. Buffalo, Baltimore, and some of the smaller cities have also "associations" for the same purpose.

These different societies, though perhaps varying somewhat in their method of work, have one and the same object in view, primarily to provide skilled attendance for the sick poor in their own homes, and also through their nurses to instruct the poor to care for their sick in the best possible way, to impress upon them the great necessity of cleanliness, and to teach them the simple laws of health, thus giving them power to avoid much future evil.

During the past year much attention has been turned toward the special needs of children,— those poor little waifs and strays whose so-called homes are too often a hot-bed of vice, whose minds and bodies are alike uncared for and neglected. St. John's Guild, of Brooklyn, knowing as it does so well the dreadful sadness of tene-

ment-house child-life, and feeling deeply the important fact that much may be done in early years both to counteract evil home influence and to prevent by timely aid and medical advice much unnecessary suffering and consequent life-long misery, has, in addition to its beautiful summer work, secured the services of a trained nurse whose entire time is devoted to visiting and caring for sick children. This nurse is enabled, through the Guild, to provide proper nourishment and medicine for her little patients as well as much needed clothing. Some of the physicians connected with the Boston Children's Hospital have lately thought it well that a nurse should be employed especially to care for little cripples in their own homes. Such a nurse has already been engaged and will soon begin her work of loving service among the helpless little ones.

Enough cannot be said in favor of this new departure. Those who only know life in its brightness and sweetness cannot even sketch a mind picture of the untold misery of the "submerged tenth." In narrow streets and crowded tenements, many of them in close proximity — alas! the sad contrast — to luxurious and happy homes, little children are suffering and dying by reason of the ignorance and gross carelessness on the part of those who ought to be their natural guardians. With many families housed in cramped dirty quarters, with no regard for either the moral or sanitary law, what wonder is it that the little ones of to-day, destined to be the men and women of a near to-morrow, grow to a stunted maturity, with diseased bodies and unhealthy minds! To rescue from this great danger as well as to save many lives among the infant population is the preventive work undertaken by St. John's Guild and other kindred societies.

It is a hand to hand struggle against disease, poverty, and dirt, against the most pitiful ignorance and inherited prejudice. The nurse finds her routine work widely different from hospital or private duty. It is almost working without tools, and ingenuity is taxed to the utmost in regard to proper appliances for the sick. Beginning each morning her daily round of visits, carrying with her in as small compass as possible all the necessary appliances for her work, she goes from house to house, from one patient to another, mounting flight after flight of stairs,—for it is a curious but true fact that tenement-house patients *always* live on the top floor of a very tall house, —here making beds, preparing nourishment, giving sponge baths,

then bandaging a leg or applying a dressing, but in all cases carrying out the doctor's orders, leaving notes of temperature and general condition, being certain the medicine is properly administered, and seeing that proper nourishment is provided whether by direct orders or otherwise,— in short, doing everything in her power for her patient's comfort. And here let me speak of the indispensable "Loan Closet" which every district nurse ought to possess. In fact, proper nursing service cannot be rendered without its aid. It should contain, besides a plentiful supply of sheets, pillow-cases, and night clothing, many other articles needed in the sick-room, which enable the nurse to perform her work with much more ease, as well as adding very materially to the comfort of the patient. I have read somewhere that in a certain country district in England the nurse is provided with a donkey cart in which she makes her rounds, taking with her everything needful for her patients. I have also read an account of a large box fitted up by some extremely philanthropic but slightly unpractical women for a district nurse connected with a hospital in one of our smaller cities, containing everything under the sun, medical and surgical, that could possibly be required in a small hospital. In fact, it was an operating-room and medicine closet combined, the only drawback being that it was not on wheels; yet the unfortunate nurse was expected to take it as a daily companion on her rounds. Of the two methods, I should prefer the donkey cart of our less enterprising but more comfort-loving English sisters; but I have found a moderate-sized bag of light weight, containing nurses' pocket-case, a small bottle of carbolic acid, or tablets, charts, apron, towel, soap, and dressings for any special case, to be quite as much as is necessary for an ordinary day's work. Of course, any special case brings its own special needs, which can readily be provided for as the occasion arises.

And now for the nurse herself. What type of woman should undertake this arduous though interesting work? It is needless to say she should be a graduate of some well-known training school, with a real love for and undoubted skill in her work. It is fully as necessary that she should be a gentlewoman, in the fullest sense of that good old English word. She should be ready and glad to perform the most menial service for her patient, when necessary, as well as to exercise the highest skill. She should possess tact, executive ability, and be able to command the respect of her patients, and yet be

capable of winning their love. In no branch of the nursing profession is the best needed more than in this once despised work among the poor. I have heard it said that any one will do to work among the poor; but that shows how little is known of the much that is required and the many serious responsibilities devolving upon the district nurse. Sickness and pain open wide an avenue of approach, by means of which the nurse may reach many hearts and lives otherwise sealed in silence. Apart from the performance of her professional duties, there are opportunities to lift, if only a little, the dense mist of ignorance and carelessness, to help raise even one step toward the higher and better those to whom this bright and beautiful life means simply an unequal struggle for mere animal existence.

Before another century and another generation have worked out their destined work, I trust that in every city and every town of this wide land there will be district nurses fighting in the only war that ever should be fought, a war not against man, but against his enemies,— Vice, Poverty, Disease, and Ignorance,— using as weapons the only weapons that ever should be used,— Love, Knowledge, Faith. That question asked in the early days of our world, "Am I my brother's keeper?" and passed on from age to age, growing louder and louder in its pitifulness, has come to us. Is not the question answered in those appealing cries for help which rise from the children of poverty? and to this answer shall we turn a deaf ear?

MISSION TRAINING SCHOOLS.

BY LINDA RICHARDS.

It is now nearly eight years since the first Mission Training School for Nurses was organized in the beautiful city of Kyoto, Japan. Surely, time enough has elapsed to enable us to judge of the value of its work. It is (as nearly as a training school in an Oriental city can be) like an American training school. The same text-books are used there as here. Nurses are given practical instruction in the wards, as with us. The school differs from most of our schools in

the matter of monthly allowance. The nurses there receive nothing save their instruction during the two years they remain in the school, and they provide their own board. They, of course, room in the "Nurses' Home." In consideration of this, more technical instruction is given, classes and lectures come daily, and the hours of duty are less there than in our schools. The motives which led to the organization of the mission training school in Japan were different from those which caused the thinking women of America to feel the necessity of such schools here.

The Mission Training School for Nurses is only one of the many methods used for the extension of Christian work in Japan. Girls' schools and boys' schools and also schools for Bible women had been organized, and had proved valuable in spreading the knowledge of Christianity. The question arose in the minds of some, Would not a training school for nurses be another and most excellent way of introducing the knowledge of Christian living into homes where the Christian teacher was not invited to enter? Then, too, would it not be another profession open to women, whereby they could earn an honorable living?

At first the idea met with little approval either among the missionaries on the field or the members of the board at home. It would be an experiment. Was it worth the trial? Consent was finally given, though not very heartily. A superintendent of nurses was secured, and in due time the school was organized. The Japanese were at first a little afraid of it; but a few courageous women (like those who entered our own schools twenty years since) were found as pupil nurses, and the work became a reality. It steadily grew. It was a strange thing to the Japanese. They watched it carefully; and to their credit, be it said, they were much quicker in discovering the virtues of the new work than some of the people in America were when our schools were new, and very soon they organized schools for nurses in some of their hospitals. At first they had English women in charge of these schools; but their independent spirit would not long allow that, and Japanese women were sent to England to be trained to return to take the work in charge.

At the end of two years the school in Kyoto was large enough to fill the little "Nurses Home," built for its use, and the first class was graduated. Each succeeding year has seen a class of graduates leave the school. These graduate nurses are invited to go into

government hospitals, of which there are many, one being found in every city of thirty or forty thousand inhabitants. These hospitals are very well conducted. The superintendent must be a doctor who is a graduate of the Tokio Medical School. He is appointed by the government, and must be an able man. It is into these hospitals that the graduate nurses go, and where they prove to the people that trained nurses are many times more valuable than the old-time untrained nurse. These patient, sweet-tempered, bright, little Japanese nurses are very much better adapted to the work in their own hospitals than either English or American nurses would be. A fair comparison of the work done by graduate nurses in Japan, both in hospitals and in private nursing, with that done in America by our own graduate nurses would not be to the disadvantage of the nurses of Japanese training schools. We have seen a little of the work which has been done. We must conclude that the mission has been a success. What school for nurses in our own country has accomplished more in eight years? It has set to Japan a noble example, which the Japanese have not been slow in following. Its nurses have carried the knowledge of Christianity into many homes where but for them the knowledge would not have found admittance. It has raised the standard of woman, and has opened to her a profession by which she can earn an honest living, and be self-respecting and respected. It has done and is doing a grand work. Shall we not extend to it our warmest sympathies, and bid it God-speed?

TRAINED NURSES IN HOSPITALS FOR THE INSANE.

BY MARION E. SMITH, OF THE PHILADELPHIA HOSPITAL.

The Women's Insane Department of this hospital, containing over four hundred inmates, was nursed by the pupils of the Hospital Training School for over five years; and my opinions are based on the personal observation of that experience. The period of service in the Insane Department was six months, though it was often ex-

tended to eight or nine, owing to unavoidable circumstances. A graduate nurse from our school held the position of supervisor, and was responsible for all the nurses, patients, and wards under her care. The nurses were withdrawn, because the frequent changing was claimed by the physicians to be bad for the patients.

The class of women in a general training school is so superior to the average insane attendant that that is one of the greatest advantages we have. The hospital nurse in training, eager to learn, looking on each new department as a fresh field of education, will care for her patients more intelligently, even if she is an undergraduate, than the insane attendant, fresh from the kitchen or farm, who does her day's work for the $16 or $18 a month she earns as wages, and who does not hesitate to leave, giving a week's notice, if a more easy or lucrative position offers itself.

When our nurses took charge of the wards, and manifested a personal interest in the cases of long standing, and treated them with gentleness and consideration, and dealt with them as human beings, and not as caged animals, keeping faith with them,—a most important point in the care of the insane,—the change in the mental condition of many of the patients was marked. The apathy and melancholy disappeared, and a new interest in life was shown. More than this, several women whose habits were filthy, and who never spoke or lifted their heads as they sat in the ward all day, improved so that they kept themselves clean, and worked in the ward dining-rooms, and became, instead of a helpless care, helpers in the ward; and more than one patient was transferred from the violent ward to a quieter one, and became permanently improved.

Then, too, it is generally admitted to-day that the insane patient is very apt to be physically abnormal, needing the care, not only of a skilled physician, but of an equally skilled nurse; and how shall this be obtained unless she be trained,—trained to observe closely both mental and physical signs of disease? And is not the woman who has gone through the experience of several months in medical, surgical, nervous, and obstetrical wards, more likely to notice and report the rise of temperature, the signs of possible fracture, the sudden paralysis, and the oncoming of labor,—all of which conditions are likely to arise in the large insane hospitals? It may be said that this belongs to the physician. True; but who is most apt to be the first to see them,—the doctor in his daily round of twenty minutes

in a ward of forty patients or the nurse who has the patients under her immediate observation ten or more hours each day? Among the sane, symptoms of disease are less liable to remain unnoticed, as the patient will complain of any untoward sensation promptly, as a rule, and be listened to and believed, whereas the insane patient will not always, unless he or she has a nurse at hand.

The claim does not always hold that the change necessary where pupils are employed is bad. More than once the peace of a whole ward was upset by one or two patients taking a dislike to a nurse, and upon her removal the trouble subsided. The new blood infused into the wards filled with women who stay there year by year brought many a refreshing change to them. On the other hand, when a nurse had done well in a ward, and was popular with the patients, when the time came to remove her it was undoubtedly a disadvantage to the ward. The one great trouble here was that we could not obtain permanent graduate nurses as head-nurses of the wards, the salary paid being inadequate; but with such, and with pupils changed every six months under them, I consider the boon to the patients to be inestimable. The refining influence of a good woman is brought to bear on the darkened and, in many cases, depraved mind with much lasting benefit; and in no other way can the same class of women be obtained than by the inducements offered them in a training school connected with a general hospital. It has been suggested, and is carried out in some of our insane hospitals, that each insane asylum should have its own school for nurses; but such training is necessarily narrow, and the graduates can only take insane cases, which handicaps them in outside practice. Besides, if the method were employed, there would still be the great objection of frequent change.

While we have only discussed so far the benefits resulting to the patients in institutions, is the community at large to be forgotten? Among the refined and educated classes there is a large amount of insanity. Shall these people be cared for by the rough and ignorant and sometimes cruel attendant, or shall they have the skilled, intelligent, reasonable, and gentle care of a professional nurse? Should that dark cloud overtake one of our own family, whom would we wish to have charge of the one who is irresponsible, whose word is not believed, and who often may be keenly alive to her surroundings and treatment? There can be but one response. Of course, all nurses

are not ideal, and all attendants are not bad; but there can be no comparison between the average trained nurse and the average insane attendant in favor of the latter. The best of attendants is apt to use "tricks," so called, handed down to her by the "Sairey Gamps" of the insane asylums, the twist of the patient's wrist being a favorite one.

Yet, if a hospital nurse has had no experience with the insane while in training, how can she undertake a case in private? She cannot learn by theory, and so an attendant is chosen in preference.

The work at first is unpleasant to many, and more than one of our pupils was most severely handled by violent patients. But that is one of the "fortunes of war," and I have never heard but one opinion from the nurses later: "I wouldn't have missed my insane training for anything, it has been of so much use to me in private nursing." I can but believe that the nursing of insane hospitals by a general training school is a distinct step forward in the march of progress, so rapid in this end of the century in which we live.

VI.

Public Relief.

OUTDOOR RELIEF: CONDITIONS, METHODS, AND STATISTICS.

Present conditions find their explanation in the past. Our age has deep roots in history. The world's life is organically connected in the process of evolution. Even the parental and gregarious instincts of animals are significant. To trace the development of the charities out of which modern systems of relief have sprung does not belong directly to this discussion, although the entire past is involved. But the streams of historical methods since the Reformation flow directly into the channels of the present. The rise of sects which divided Christendom, the growth of laic influence, the abuses of monastic charity, the avarice of kings and secular nobles, the confiscation of mediæval gild funds, the dissolution of gilds, the abolition of feudal serfdom, the free movement of landless freemen, the increasing necessity of police regulation of vagrants and sturdy beggars, are some of the factors which explain the diversity and almost anarchy of our contemporary methods. The actual systems of modern Christian countries have been described by Emminghaus, Loening, and others. The topic was discussed last year in the conferences. A volume of "Special Consular Reports on Vagrancy and Public Charity in Foreign Countries," and a Report to the Local Government Board on Poor Laws in Foreign Countries (1875) will supply information. This Conference has discussed the principles of outdoor relief, and reported various aspects of the matter in local situations. In 1878 and 1880 Dr. H. B. Wheelwright described the admirable provisions of State oversight in Massachusetts. In 1881 Dr. Seth Low used the statistics of Brooklyn and other cities which had abolished outdoor public relief

in a very striking and impressive way. The arguments for and against such methods have been so thoroughly presented that no new points of view can be expected to come before us.

But the arguments thus far used have been based on facts drawn either from narrow local experience in this country or from foreign data. The present report is an honest though very imperfect attempt to enlarge the range of accurate and adequate presentation of facts.

There is one set of facts easily accessible and of primary importance,— the poor laws of the various States. As Mr. C. D. Wright collated the laws relating to divorce, so some one might arrange in tabular form the essential features of the laws governing outdoor relief. Such an exhibit should represent in a comparative view the official organization of relief; the names, duties, terms of office, and mode of appointment of all relief officials; the co-ordination of these offices in town, county, and State, with reciprocal connections; the conditions of securing and keeping a legal settlement; the modes of providing for paupers who have not a legal settlement in the place where want overtakes them; the reimbursement of local treasuries for advances on this account in case of emergency. A comparative view is not enough. There should be prepared an historical account of the changes of the poor law in each State, and the various economical, domestic, political, ecclesiastical, and natural causes of such changes. Here is a subject that might well be intrusted to a co-operative committee of college men who have access to large law libraries. A creditable report might be made in one or two years. For purposes of illustration and comparison, digests of the laws of a few States in respect to outdoor relief ought here to be considered.

As Dr. Wheelwright said: —

Public provision for the poor in New England dates back to the earliest settlement. Our ancestors had lived under the operation of the newly enacted poor laws of England. The Act known as the forty-third of Elizabeth was the sum of their knowledge. It established a parish system. It created overseers of the poor, and defined their duties. It made work compulsory, and required overseers to provide it. And, finally from its germ of local support with local supervision there grew up gradually methods by which every man might secure and transmit to his children a permanent right to public relief. Statutes identical with these in principle, but

modified in their details to suit the needs of a new country and the peculiar ideas of their framers, were soon adopted by the men of New England. These have been altered and added to from time to time, so that now their provisions are alike in no two States; and they form altogether a curious piece of patchwork.

The *Massachusetts* law gives settlement for residence of five years without pauper aid, and in addition to this condition the men must have paid poll taxes three years. Children under age have the settlement of parents. Settlement continues until a new one is acquired. The overseers of a town must give relief to all needy persons; but, if the indigent person has no settlement in the town, notice must be sent to the State Board for a decision. For temporary aid given to persons without a settlement the town is reimbursed by the State. Overseers may remove persons having no legal settlement after a notice to the authorities where the person belongs. Work may be required of a person receiving aid; and, if an able-bodied man refuses to work, he is treated as a vagrant. The system of State supervision of care of the poor without settlement is a marked and valuable feature.

We have collected typical laws from several States; but our limits forbid reading them here.

The Purpose and Scope of Statistics of Outdoor Relief.

Are such statistics desirable? We know social facts completely only when we measure them. We cannot measure social facts without statistics. The iron law of necessity may compel us to do without such measurement, but no competent reasoner will rest content until he secures all available information. In the case of outdoor relief the social interest is vast and complex. Social doctrine to explain a phenomenon or to recommend a cure is a mere opinion, a shrewd guess at the best, so long as it is not based on facts. In the absence of statistics, all sorts of visionary theories and schemes are set flying through the air; but they are so contradictory that business men and scientific reasoners pay no attention to the vague conclusions of either majority or minority reports. We do not know whether pauperism is increasing or decreasing, whether our methods are promoting thrift or degrading the poor, whether our benevolence is beneficent or maleficent. Apathy in respect to sta-

tistics is without excuse. Many kind people have wrought more injury to mankind than some criminals, because they did not take pains to secure a basis of fact for their methods of philanthropy. The coming field for martyrdom is this age-long pursuit of data for scientific conclusions. Nothing requires more self-denial, more willingness to sink self out of sight, and to co-operate with fellow-workers for a useful result, without glory or brilliant attractions. It is so much easier to frame golden rhetoric than to compare figures and tables. But, assuming as certain in this Conference that statistics are indispensable, we may now ask: What questions should statistics answer? What inquiries should be set on foot? We may reply, All intelligent citizens need to know in respect to charity given in homes:—

First, what is the extent of outdoor relief in relation to population, the material resources of the community, the past extent and tendency of such relief, various communities being compared? Second, does this kind of relief tend to become permanent, and, if so, under what circumstances? What kind of aid is given in various places,— as rent, support, medical aid, burial expenses,— and what have been the effects? For example, what peculiar effects have come from paying rents or from gratuitous medical aid? Fourth, in what form is aid given,— money or goods? and what are the reasons for each method? Fifth, the domestic and social status of recipients,— age, sex, marital state (single, married, divorced, separated, deserted), white, colored, native, foreign. Sixth, the personal ability of the dependent,— able-bodied or feeble. Seventh, residence and settlement; foreign pauper without settlement; time of settlement; place and period of former settlement. Eighth, the system of relief adopted by the community; the arrangements made between indoor and outdoor relief agencies; arrangements between public and private charities; the existence or absence of associations of organized charity; the provisions of the poor law in respect to outdoor relief. Ninth, causes of destitution: (*a*) of a general nature,— as climate, race, history, religion, degree of poverty in the district, standard of living, rural or urban conditions, economical depressions or prosperity, state of crops, the poor law, customs relating to almsgiving; (*b*) individual causes,— as injury by accidents, death of parent or supporter, accident or sickness, orphanage, blindness, deaf-mutism, crippled insanity

feeble-minded, old age, excessive number of children, out of work, low wages, drunkenness, neglect of work and vagabondage, wilful desertion, imprisonment of supporter.

It is highly desirable, as all here will grant, to have accurate and complete statistics of outdoor relief. But we must next consider whether it is *possible to obtain them*, and, if so, in what manner. It must be confessed that the difficulty of obtaining the desirable data is supreme. When our own Dr. Wines, backed by the powers of the United States, confesses that the task is thus far beyond human power, we may well feel staggered. In the Compendium of the Tenth Census (vol. ii., p. 166), we read:—

It is almost, if not quite impossible, to obtain the statistics of pauperism. The first question to be decided is, Who are paupers? Paupers, in the strict sense of the word, are poor persons supported in whole or in part at the expense of some public fund, raised by taxation, whether such fund belongs to a State, county, city, or town. . . . It becomes a perpetually recurring question whether to provide for the permanently poor in almshouses or outside. This is a question which is answered in one way by one community, and by another in another. The indoor poor can be found and counted with comparative ease; but how are we to know when we have succeeded in finding the outdoor poor? The aid extended outside the almshouse is of great variety, both in kind and amount. Sometimes it is equivalent to full support, more often it is temporary and partial. It may assume the form of a direct contribution in money, or of an order upon a store for supplies, or of medical attendance in case of sickness, to say nothing of other expenses sometimes met from the public treasury, such as the cost of transportation of the pauper as far as the next county; but, whatever it may be, the records kept of it are as incomplete as can well be imagined. It is ordinarily within the discretion of some supervisor, overseer of the poor, or poor-master, whose disbursements are so limited in amount that they are not reported except in gross. He makes no returns of names, but possibly gives an order on a store; and the bills for pauper relief are so mixed with items for other uses that they cannot be separated from the general fund, and in most States the town or county officials have no thought of keeping any statistical record of pauperism. As to finding the outdoor paupers by inquiring for them from door to door, that is impossible.

And, therefore, one will find a census of the almshouse population, but of only 21,598 outdoor paupers. In spite of the warning that "no reliance can be placed upon this figure," so intelligent a

writer as Mr. Andrew Carnegie quoted them in his "Triumphant Democracy" (first edition) as the sum of outdoor pauperism in this country. Mr. C. D. Wright says, "It is impossible to obtain through the machinery of the Census Office any approximation to a complete enumeration of the outdoor poor." If the Census Bureau declares its inability to cope with this problem, is there any other direction in which we may hopefully look?

Your committee asks your attention to certain efforts in this field which are not only valuable in themselves, but indicate the way to similar results in this country.

Germany.— As late as 1870 Emminghaus complained that the German statistics were incomplete and confused. His own great work is defective on this side. There are descriptions, but not complete measurements of facts. About 1880 the Verein für Armenpflege und Wohlthätigkeit authorized an investigation whose results would of themselves justify the cost and labor of any society. Dr. Victor Böhmert edited and published the studies under the title "Poor Relief in Seventy-seven German Cities" in the years 1886–88. The committee of statisticians in charge of the work first formulated a plan, and then secured the co-operation of the relief officers of the various communities. In each city cards were furnished on a uniform scheme, and each dependent person was registered in the same way. The blanks required the following data: date, place, name, sex, religion, birthday, birthplace, calling, family status (single, married, widow, legally divorced, living apart, deserted), number of dependent persons in the household (male, female, ages), place of pauper settlement, date when the person began to live there, what aid given during the year (outdoor or indoor, duration, cash or goods), causes, year when first aided, way of gaining settlement (by residence, marriage, or descent). The work was done by government officials, under the direction of the committee of the Union; and the expenses were met by the communities. The tabulated results were carefully examined by men of scientific training, and are approximately complete and correct for 77 cities. These districts held a population of 4,156,086. The total number of persons assisted was 248,394. This field is wide and varied enough to warrant deductions from the facts secured. The limits of this report permit only a few illustrations drawn from this treasury of data. There is a list of districts, with the number of persons as-

sisted. The per cent. varies from 10.70 to 1.64. The average of all dependants (public, indoor, and outdoor) was 5.86 per cent. of the population. The chief city, Berlin, has the highest rate, the outdoor paupers being 6 per cent. of the inhabitants. The cities of over 100,000 show the rate of dependants to be 6.51 per cent., cities of 50,000 to 100,000 show 6.39, cities of 20,000 to 50,000 show 5.02, cities of under 20,000 show 4.75 per cent. It is important to notice that in Germany outdoor relief is more used than indoor. Of the whole number, 61.13 per cent. were outdoor relief cases and only 38.87 per cent. indoor. Notice also that, of those who received outdoor aid, 31.62 per cent. were men, and 68.38 per cent. were women; while the ratio is reversed with those who received indoor relief,—64.92 per cent were men, and 35.08 were women. And, taking the figures relating to age, we notice the heavy rate which falls to the period of child-bearing, taken in connection with low wages. Of 16,543 married men, 32 per cent. were in the group between the ages of 35 and 45 years. Old age also raises the rate, so that, of all women over 85 years of age, 50 per cent. were receiving outdoor relief.

The centralized system of the English Local Government Board furnishes each year, and at intervals during the year, very complete and clear statistics of outdoor and indoor relief. (See the article by W. A. Hunter, "Outdoor Relief: is it so very Bad?" *Contemporary Review*, March, 1894.)

In this country we have had as yet no investigation to compare with that of Böhmert. But your committee wish to call attention to a few attempts which indicate the right direction. In the deservedly famous "Report of the Special Committee on Outdoor Alms of the Town of Hartford, A.D. 1891," we have a study which has more than local interest. We venture to cite a few illustrative results.

In Table I. Hartford is compared with 38 American cities in respect to population, gross expenses of outdoor relief, tax per capita for all relief, tax per capita for outdoor relief. The average tax for outdoor relief in 12 Connecticut cities was 61 cents; in 5 Massachusetts cities, 24 cents; and in 3 other New England cities, 9 cents; in 3 New York cities, 4 cents; in 4 Pennsylvania and Maryland cities, 5 cents; in 4 Western and Southern cities, 17 cents. The average in all, 11 cents.

Table II. presents for 15 cities and 1 union the facts relating

to all relief,—population, outdoor poor, indoor poor, total pauper population, gross cost of all relief, cost to tax-payers of all relief, cost of outdoor relief, cost per capita of all relief, cost per capita of outdoor relief, ratio of paupers to population, cost to tax-payer per capita. Table III. compares Hartford with 24 Italian communities on a similar basis.

Table IV. compares Hartford with 17 European countries for all relief. Table V. gives, without separation of outdoor relief, the progress of pauperism in Hartford as compared with 9 communities in Europe and America. Table VII. gives an instructive exhibit of "articles drawn on 594 grocery orders given to the poor of Hartford in 1890." Table VIII. compares the cost of burials of paupers in 31 cities of Europe and America. Table IX. is a model local study of Hartford records of relief from 1874 to 1890,—shows the amounts given for outdoor alms (fuel, provisions, burial, medicines, doctors' salaries, etc.); percentages of increase and decrease; number of outdoor poor (families, adults, children, persons, burials); visits and consultations of medical officers. Table XIV. gives for four years, 1887–90, facts relating to arrests for non-support of family and for vagrancy. Your committee raised the question whether it would not be wise to reprint the tables and some parts of the text, with such additions as the studies of more recent years could furnish. In all parts of the United States local charity workers can find, with varying degrees of completeness, records of overseers and commissioners which might be collated on a uniform plan. Local reforms would be promoted by disclosing the facts thus rescued from the tombs of archives and confronted with the facts drawn from those communities which have a better system of administration. Teachers of history, economics, and sociology in colleges could give their pupils excellent practice, and serve the public, by making these investigations under the direction of a committee of this Conference. State Boards of Charity could co-operate with great efficiency in such a labor. Your committee also calls attention to another important contribution in this country to the statistics of outdoor relief,—the records of the numerous societies for organizing charity. It is true that the number of cases thus far tabulated is small. The questions are confined to categories of domestic status, age, nationality, and education. Only 30 cities are reported. There is no separate study of outdoor relief, though the aid given is practically all out-

door relief. But, with all these serious limitations, a fair beginning has been made. Indeed, it seems that it is through such societies that we must expect the earliest efforts to measure and weigh the facts of outdoor relief, private as well as public. It is too much to hope for a national census or even State census of the outdoor poor for many years. But local studies of the facts in large communities, where the problems of pauperism are most pressing, will furnish data for safe conclusions. If a mathematician has a base line and two angles, he can calculate the length of the two sides of the triangle not actually measured. A zoölogist can reconstruct a fossil animal and imagine its environment from a spine, a tooth, and fragments of bones. By comparing the statistics of one community with the imperfect reports of others, we may reach relatively safe ground. In the "Report of the Committee on History of Charity Organization" made to the Twentieth Conference we find some of the results of the first inquiry into the registration of cases by these societies. Thirty-one of the most important societies had kept valuable records. In New York City alone more than 170,000 families or parts of families had been studied. Of 15,000 cases the domestic status is known: 34.59 per cent. were married couples, 19.03 widows, 6.55 deserted wives, 6.30 single women, 3.74 widowers or deserted husbands, 25.84 single men, 1.09 orphaned or abandoned children. The ages are given of over 35,000 cases: under 20 years, mostly mere children, 46.52 per cent.; between 20 and 40 years, 9.65 per cent.; between 40 and 55 years, 32.49 per cent.; between 55 and 70 years, 19.40 per cent.; over 70, 1.66 per cent. As to nationality, of 21,700 cases, 42.21 per cent. were white born in the United States; 8.58 per cent. colored persons born in the United States; 3.52 per cent. Canadians, 5.60 British, 11.94 Germans, 19.54 Irish, 1.53 Scandinavians, 1.77 Poles and Russians. Of over 6,600 cases, 75.77 per cent. could both read and write, 5.84 could read, but not write, 18.59 could neither read nor write.

It is largely due to the systematic collection and presentation of facts about outdoor public relief that it has either been abolished or greatly modified in many places. The same report claims these results: Brooklyn, abolished in 1878, annual saving, $141,207: Buffalo, average production, 50 per cent., amount saved per annum, $50,000; Burlington, Ia., saved in one year $4,000; Hartford, Conn., reduction 65 per cent., saved per annum $26,000; Indi-

anapolis saved annually $82,000; New Haven reduced $10,000 a year; Omaha, $15,000; Philadelphia, $60,000; Syracuse, $10,850; Taunton, Mass., $10,423. Total saved by better methods, $409,480 annually. But this list does not include many other cities whose methods of administering outdoor relief have been improved by these investigations. It is only by such appeals to actual facts that public opinion can be aroused and directed upon abuses.

The returns made to your committee in response to letters sent to esteemed charity workers all over the United States are too meagre and fragmentary to be of great value; and they came too late in May to be compared with each other, even where comparison was possible. In some States the reports of the State Boards of Charities present data of some value. But, generally, these reports are so imperfect as to be exasperating. It is evident that we must begin at the foundation, secure the co-operation of many local students of charity, and educate the communities to appreciate the importance of building systems of thought and practice on facts rather than on emotions and guesses. However, the tables collected by your committee in the course of a laborious though somewhat discouraging quest of a year are at the disposal of the Conference. The tables collected by the World's Fair at Chicago are now at Johns Hopkins University, and President Gilman kindly offers to place them before us in such form as seems best. In the judgment of your committee, tables compiled from them would be of considerable value.

We gratefully acknowledge help from many sources, and here note reports which may be printed in separate form if the Conference thinks best:—

Nebraska, Rev. A. W. Clark, summary of amounts distributed in public and private outdoor relief during the last year. Cincinnati, Ohio, Mr. P. W. Ayers, Ph.D., gives a table of public outdoor relief for the years 1861–93, with explanatory text, and items in 14 columns covering kinds of relief. The mayor has recommended the abolition of public outdoor relief. Miss C. M. Patten, Portland, Me., sends table for 1880–92. Mr. T. L. Jackson sends table for Saginaw, Mich. Messrs. C. H. Voorhees and Mr. G. Lambert give statistics of New Brunswick, N.J., for 1893. Mr. J. A. Young sends data for 1890–93 from Toledo, Ohio. Alice W. Palmer gives data for public and private outdoor relief in Boston since 1870. Mr. J. A.

Harwich, of the University of Chicago, prepared a form of statistics which is presented with this report. In some of the reports the important subject of the causes of dependence receives attention. How complicated these causes are is apparent from the examination of such a statement as that of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, 1893. When Brooklyn was one-half its present size, 9,000 families drew weekly rations every winter from public storehouses, at a cost to the tax-payers of $140,000 annually. When public outdoor relief was abolished, labor tests were applied to tramps, work and wages were more generally substituted for alms, 500 friendly visitors were enrolled, and $2,000,000 of outdoor alms has been saved during the past fifteen years. Private charity has not greatly increased; and the increase in certain forms of indoor relief, it is claimed, is not due to suspension of outdoor relief. It would here appear that the system of relief itself is sometimes a most serious cause of dependence. Of 195 cases studied last year, it was thought that disease was the cause; accident, 29; intemperance, 89; inability to find work, 187; unwillingness to work, 52; ignorance and shiftlessness, 47.

The Buffalo report for 1891 gives this table of the chief causes of need in 612 cases: accident, 31; imprisonment of bread-winner, 10; insanity, 4; insufficient earnings, 39; intemperance, 32; lack of employment, 150; no male support, 109; physical defects, 27; shiftlessness or inefficiency, 10; sickness, 147; no cause, 52.

By comparing this list with that of the causes of dependence in Wisconsin poorhouses (1891), it will be realized that very different classes of persons are dealt with. In the Wisconsin report of indoor relief the causes of destitution were mental diseases of all grades, old age, and various permanent physical defects.

Missouri.—As St. Louis is on the border between North and South, its charity methods are worthy of special study. There is no public outdoor relief, such as is found in Chicago. One marked effect should be noticed,— the grading of beneficiaries, and the consequent mode of distribution. In Chicago it is understood that the more confirmed cases are referred to the county agent for public relief, while those who give promise of self-support are cared for by the Relief and Aid Society or by other private charity. In St. Louis the Provident Association is the principal organ of outdoor relief for all classes of beneficiaries. The Chicago society finds it

safe to give money, while the Provident Association gives materials. The records of the St. Louis society cover 33 years, during which period 51,844 families have received aid, at a total expense of $609,245.80.

It is hard to choose between entire silence and fragmentary statistics. We have already seen that the silence of the United States census has been the occasion of a very misleading and dangerous estimate. Your committee does not pretend to offer complete statistics for even one community, but it can present a mass of authentic facts which will help to show that outdoor relief is a factor of immense importance in our country. The following table of numbers aided and amounts given ought to serve a valuable purpose in disturbing the optimistic dreams of those who seem to regard outdoor relief as a merely evanescent disease of our national life, which will run a self-limiting course if let alone.

State.	*Persons aided.*	*Amounts of public outdoor relief*
1. Pennsylvania	24,536	$550,564.43
2. Ohio	67,927	443,282.51
3. North Carolina	1,053	—
4. Minnesota	5,090	187,000.00
5. New York	131,439	681,934.99
6. Massachusetts*	44,146	—
"Partially supported, State," Boston (1890)	7,527	$56,968.00
7. Michigan	39,115	398,994.92
8. Nebraska	—	66,504.85
9. Illinois	—	648,596.37
10. Wisconsin	—	148,691.45
11. Indiana (estimate)	100,000	500,000.00
12. Iowa (5 counties out of 99), 1892	892	37,554.00

SOURCES.

1. Pennsylvania. Report of Board of Public Charities, 1891, p. 314.

2. Ohio. Report Board of State Charities, 1891.

3. North Carolina. Report of Board of Public Charities, 1891–92. No tables given. Cost reported as $1.50 to $4 a month for each pauper. Figures very incomplete. The first attempt to secure such statistics.

4. Minnesota. Report Board of Corrections and Charities, 1889 and 1890.

5. Report State Board of Charities, January, 1893.

6. Massachusetts. Report State Board. Incomplete for State. For Boston, Alice W. Palmer.

7. Michigan. Report State Board, 1889.

* State poor. Some uncertainty about reckoning.

8. Nebraska. Rev. A. W. Clark, letters from county officials, 1893.
9. Illinois. Board of Public Charities Report, 1890.
10. Wisconsin. Report State Board of Control, 1892.
11. Indiana. Figures estimated. Sent by Professor J. R. Commons, and compiled by Mr. Willis and Mr. Bicknell.
12. Iowa. Miss M. E. Starr, Burlington, wrote to ninety-nine counties, and secured partial data from five.

Your committee submits this fragmentary report of a year's labors to the candid and charitable judgment of the Conference. Those who know most of the subject will be most lenient in criticism. It is hoped the Conference will continue the investigation, and consider whether it is not possible to secure funds for a thorough investigation similar to that of the German Union. It would be well worth while to spend a few thousands of dollars on a study which would save millions in taxation and an incalculable amount of degradation of the poor.

Respectfully submitted,

C. R. HENDERSON, *Chairman*,
R. R. CALDWELL,
CHARLES PARROTT,
ROBERT D. MCGONNIGLE,
S. SIMON,
} *Committee.*

VII.

Child-saving.

THE REMOVAL OF CHILDREN FROM ALMSHOUSES.

BY HOMER FOLKS, CHAIRMAN,

SECRETARY OF THE STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK.

The history of the poorhouse has been a disgraceful chapter in the annals of every State and every country. Under whatever name the institution has been known,— workhouse in England, almshouse in Massachusetts, county home in Pennsylvania, infirmary in Ohio,—its nature has been the same. Everywhere it has been the abomination of desolation. Everywhere men have instinctively spoken of "going to the poorhouse" as the last and bitterest of earthly misfortunes. If the vital statistics of poorhouses could be accurately kept, the percentage of deaths from a broken heart would be surprising.

The reasons for this state of things are easily seen. The poorhouse became the dumping-ground for the wreckage and waste of human society. It was the only open door to all those who were unable to compete successfully in the struggle for a livelihood by reason of mental or physical infirmity, and at the same time had no relatives or friends with sufficient heart and means to give them shelter, — in other words, of all those who from any cause were economically "unfit" and socially isolated.

The classes which inevitably took their way over the hills to the poorhouse were as varied as the causes which produce extreme poverty. Among them were the mentally incompetent, including the insane, epileptics, the feeble-minded, and idiotic; the physically disabled, including those whom old age finds without friends or pro-

vision for a rainy day, the destitute sick, the blind, deaf-mutes, and the crippled and deformed. There also pass through its doors a melancholy procession of destitute children and unwedded mothers.

Certainly, such a motley gathering of incapables could lead to no good result. Each individual of each of these classes needs an extra amount of personal care and expert treatment. It was because of this fact that they were brought to the poorhouse. Their friends or relatives found them burdensome, and were unable or unwilling to make the personal sacrifice of time and service which the occasion called for. They came to the poorhouse, not to receive better care, more attention, more intelligent treatment, but to take care of each other,— the idiotic to keep guard over the insane, the blind to lead the halt, feeble-minded adults to train children. Naturally, it was impossible for any poorhouse with this varied population to be a fit place for any human being to live in.

But added to the natural difficulties were others. The poorhouse has been too often, though not always, the cheapest of the spoils of politics for plunder only. Each party in successive control has felt that its political future depended upon persuading the people that the poorhouse had been managed extravagantly by its predecessor and economically by itself. To accomplish this end, the supply of food has often been reduced to the lowest possible point, and purchased at the lowest price, with little regard to quality; repairs to buildings have been postponed indefinitely; nurses and attendants have been dispensed with. This persistent, hard-hearted demand for economy, which seems to be well-nigh universal, does not represent, in my opinion, the real feeling of the people of any community of the United States. It is simply the false cry of the politician seeking "an issue." I am optimistic enough to believe that in every community of the United States a majority of the voters, to say nothing of the women, would, if the matter were fairly presented, decide every question affecting poorhouse management on the grounds of humanity rather than economy.

To add to the difficulties, the poorhouse has frequently been located in the most inaccessible part of the county. "Over the hills" is too often a correct description of the journey. I recall a typical case in Pennsylvania. Parallel railroads traversed opposite sides of the county. Rival cities were located on these roads. To avoid injury to the local pride of one city by locating a public institution

near the other, and to assist in securing a fair distribution of patronage, the poorhouse was located half-way between. It was ten miles from the nearer railway station, and eleven from the other. At the time of my visit there were twenty children roaming through this poorhouse. The nearest city, ten miles away, was one of the finest of country towns. Its people were well-to-do, cultured, kind, and public-spirited. They took pride in showing their well-built city to visitors, and in pointing out their magnificent school building and their numerous and beautiful churches. But the enthusiastic citizens, who took a deep interest in the temporal as well as the spiritual wants of the heathen by the Congo and the Ganges, had overlooked those who were sitting in darkness by the Susquehanna. They did not realize that in that poorhouse twenty American children were becoming worse than heathen. "It is so far away," they said. No one doubts that the American people are humane at heart. We do not mean to be cruel, but I wonder if we are not cruelly thoughtless.

"Evil is wrought by want of thought
As well as want of heart."

The erection of county poorhouses was first authorized in the State of New York in 1824. In 1856, thirty-eight years ago, and thirty-two years after the first poorhouses were built, the Senate of the State of New York appointed a "Select Committee" to investigate all the charitable institutions of the State. They gave five months to their work, and in their report concerning the poorhouses summed up their conclusions thus:—

As receptacles for adult paupers, the committee do not hesitate to record their deliberate opinion that the great mass of the poorhouses that they have inspected are most disgraceful memorials of the public charity. Common domestic animals are usually more humanely provided for than the paupers in these institutions. The evidence taken by the committee exhibits such a record of filth, nakedness, licentiousness, general bad morals, and disregard of religion and the most common religious observances, as well as of gross neglect of the most ordinary comforts and decencies of life as, if published in detail, would disgrace the State and shock humanity.

Yet I doubt whether New York was one whit worse than any other State in the Union.

The committee reported farther, "It is much to be regretted that our citizens generally manifest so little interest in the condition even of the poorhouses in their immediate neighborhood, and the committee are quite convinced that to this apparent indifference on the part of the citizens may be attributed to a great degree the miserable state to which these houses have fallen." It is greatly to be feared that the citizens of the United States, generally, still deserve the reproach which thirty-eight years ago this committee felt it their duty to offer to the citizens of the State of New York.

Poorhouse reform has of necessity worked in the line of segregating these various elements of the poorhouse population, and in securing for each class the special care, expert treatment, and favorable conditions which their malady requires. The blind have been removed to schools where they receive an education which enables many of them to take their places among the wage-earners of the community. The insane have been removed to State hospitals where they receive expert medical treatment, are allowed the largest possible degree of liberty, and are regarded simply as sick people to be cured. Feeble-minded children have in many of the States been removed to training schools where they can be made happy and comfortable, receive the training and education of which they are individually capable, and be prevented from perpetuating their kind. The deformed and crippled have been sent to hospitals for the treatment and cure, if possible, of their special deformities. Two States, Ohio and New York, have recently established separate institutions for the employment and treatment of epileptics, an entirely distinct class of unfortunates, who have been crowded into the poorhouses greatly to their own injury, simply because there was no other place to which they could go.

Most important of all has been the removal of children from the demoralizing influences of poorhouse associations. It is a simple statement of fact that the majority of children who grow to adolescence in poorhouses become paupers or criminals. How could it be otherwise? Do we realize even yet to how great an extent every human being is the natural product of his surroundings; that all we know we have been taught; that the good start we got in life was due to the fact that we had loving fathers and mothers who poured out their lives into our own, and little by little and with infinite pains taught us to walk, to talk, to eat, to read, to work, to live? These

things come not by intuition, but by example and precept. Think, then, for a moment of the absence of any inspiring, humanizing, developing influences in the poorhouse; of the distorted and debased human lives after which the poorhouse child patterned; of the worn-out or faulty material, rejected by society, out of which he constructed his life; of the vices, more contagious than disease, in the midst of which he lived by day and night. There could be but one product. Protracted residence in a poorhouse produced everywhere a certain type of child, — lazy, profane, cunning, immoral, absolutely untruthful, quarrelsome, bold. Whether these characteristics became permanent depended upon how long the forces that produced them were in action.

It is not necessary at this time to describe all the consequences of compelling children to live in a pauper atmosphere, with feeble-minded adults as playmates and nurses, and for teachers physical and moral wrecks who had squandered their substance in riotous living. For that wretched system no one now stands as apologist. We all agree that it was and is and always must be bad,— unqualifiedly bad.

The history of the movement to exclude children from almshouses may perhaps be said to begin in the United States with the report of this special committee of 1856, which said: "The most important point in the whole subject confided to the committee is that which concerns the care and education of children of paupers. The committee are forced to say that it is a great public reproach that they should be permitted to remain in the poorhouses as they are now mismanaged. They are for the young the worst possible nurseries." Not much was accomplished, however, during the next ten years; and, when the State Board of Charities was established in 1867, it found some 2,300 children in poorhouses in the State of New York. Efforts were made to induce the boards of supervisors of the various counties to make other provision for the children, either by placing them in families or by sending them to asylums for children. Through the influence of the members of the State Board of Charities and other public-spirited citizens, a very considerable number of the counties of the State removed some or all of the children from the poorhouses. Nearly another ten years had passed, however, before the practice of sending children to poorhouses was definitely forbidden by law. In 1875, through the efforts of the Hon. William

P. Letchworth of the State Board of Charities, supported by the State Charities Aid Association, a statute was secured, forbidding the retention of children over three years of age in any of the almshouses or poorhouses of the State. Meanwhile similar agitations had been carried on in other States. The legislature of Michigan appointed in 1869 an investigating committee to visit county jails and poorhouses, and, as the outcome of the work of this committee, established in 1871 its now noted State School for Dependent Children. A law forbidding the sending of children over five and under sixteen years of age to poorhouses was passed in Wisconsin in 1876. Similar legislation was secured in Massachusetts in 1879, in Indiana and Michigan in 1881, in Ohio and Pennsylvania in 1883. Minnesota and Rhode Island established State schools for dependent children in 1885; Kansas, in 1887. An effort to secure such a law in Illinois in 1893 was unsuccessful, but will be renewed in 1895.

Of these laws, that of New York in its present amended form is perhaps the most radical, making it unlawful to send any child between the ages of two and sixteen years to any poorhouse or almshouse. Pennsylvania exempts feeble-minded and other defective children. It does not forbid the sending of children to poorhouses, but commands their removal within sixty days. Massachusetts allows children to remain until four years of age, and, if they have mothers in the poorhouse able to care for them, until eight years of age. Only within the past year has this law been made to apply to the town almshouses, of which there are a large number in the State. In Wisconsin children under six years of age are exempted from the law, as are also defective children.

In regard to such legislation the consensus of opinion among those familiar with the subject seems to be, I think, that the more radical, the better; that, in fact, any statute which does not absolutely prohibit the residence of children of sound mind and body and past two years of age in any almshouse is seriously defective.

In spite of the unanimity of opinion as to the beneficial effects of such a law and the possibility of its easy enforcement, statutes forbidding the residence of children in poorhouses have been passed in only a few States. The census of 1890 tells us that there are still 4,987 children between two and sixteen years of age, inclusive, in poorhouses in the United States. No doubt a proportion of these

are defective children, who could not ordinarily be placed in families or asylums for normal children; but the fact seems to be indisputable that several thousand children practically sound in mind and body still remain in our poorhouses.

I had gained the impression from some source that a large proportion of these children were in the Southern States; and when I began to prepare for this meeting, I supposed that it would probably be our duty to "gently, but firmly," remind our friends of the South that this was not creditable. A study of the census figures, however, shows that, although children form a larger proportion of the almshouse population in the South than in the North, those States having the largest number of children in poorhouses in proportion to the population of the State are located without reference to Mason and Dixon's line. The States which are shown by census bulletin No. 154 to have the largest number of children between two and sixteen years of age in almshouses in proportion to their total population are as follows: New Hampshire, 46 children in almshouses to one hundred thousand of the general population; Vermont, 27; West Virginia, 25; New Jersey,* 23; Virginia, 19; Maine, 18; Ohio,* 17; Rhode Island, 16; Massachusetts,* 15; Indiana, 15; Kentucky, 14; Montana, 12; North Carolina, 10; Pennsylvania,* 8; Illinois, 8; Tennessee, 8; Delaware, 7; Maryland, 6; Connecticut, 6; Michigan, 6; Missouri, 5; Kansas, 5; Georgia, 4. All other States and Territories are reported to have less than four children in almshouses per one hundred thousand population.

A paper on this subject would be inexcusably incomplete which did not make some mention of the different methods adopted in the various States for the care of dependent children who formerly would have been sent to the poorhouse. While no two States have adopted systems exactly alike, we may, disregarding certain minor differences, divide the various methods into four groups; and, as each method has been in operation for some years, the time may have arrived for forming some sort of a comparison, and noting the advantages claimed for and objections urged against each.

The four classes of methods are: —

1. The private asylum system, used in New York and California.

* It should be said that authorities in these States question the accuracy of the census returns, if they are to be understood as including only children living in actual contact with adult paupers.

2. The county system, used in Ohio, Connecticut, and to some extent in Indiana.

3. The State system, used in Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Rhode Island, and Kansas.

4. The boarding system, used in Pennsylvania and in Massachusetts, in the latter State in connection with a State institution.

1. The private asylum system. The law of New York provides that children who are public charges shall be provided for "in families, orphan asylums, hospitals, or other appropriate institutions." As a matter of fact, although the county and town officials place a few children in families, the great majority are sent to orphan asylums and kindred institutions. Reports from the superintendents of the poor of forty of the sixty counties of the State show 68 children placed by them in families in 1892, while during the same year 17,428 children were admitted to orphan asylums and institutions of like nature. These institutions are under the control of private, self-perpetuating corporations, composed of benevolent and public-spirited citizens. The details of internal management are usually under the direction of an associate board, composed of women. Most of these asylums existed prior to the passage of the "Children's Law" of 1875, and a few have been established since that time for the express purpose of caring for this class of children. All these institutions are subject to the visitation and inspection of the State Board of Charities, to which they make an annual report concerning receipts and expenditures and admission and discharge of children. The counties pay a stated amount per week for the support of each child, the amount being fixed by the board of supervisors, and being usually somewhat less than the actual cost of the support of the child. The deficit is covered by voluntary contributions by the friends of the institution. In New York City, however, the allowance is sufficient in most cases to cover the entire cost of maintenance, and in 1892 to leave in nine cases a surplus amounting in all to $69,498. Except in Erie County, which employs two agents for placing out, the work of removing the children from the asylum to families is left usually, and in New York City entirely, to the managers of the institutions.

The advantages claimed for the system as a whole are: —

a. The absolute removal of the whole administration from the influences of partisan politics and the devastations of the spoils system.

b. The enlistment in each community of the active interest of a considerable number of public-spirited and benevolent citizens, who, being managers of the institution or otherwise connected therewith, visit the institution with more or less regularity, give careful attention to the details of administration, and in many cases take an active interest in the welfare of the individual children.

c. The removal of the dependent children of the State from all connection with paupers and pauper administration, thus effectually saving them from the taint and stigma of pauperism.

It is urged against the system : —

a. That it greatly increases the number of children to be cared for. By removing the stigma which attaches to admission to a poorhouse, and by securing to each child the religious training which its parents prefer, the natural unwillingness of parents to part with their children is in large degree removed, the result being that many children are thrown upon the public bounty who would never be permitted by their parents to enter a poorhouse.

To a less extent this phase of the difficulty is, however, met in every attempt to remove children from poorhouses; and in every State it is a serious problem to give the children proper care without subjecting hard-pressed parents to improper temptations to give up their responsibilities.

b. By paying a per capita allowance for the children, and allowing them to remain in the institutions at the will of the managers, the incentives to keep the number in the institutions small, either by a vigorous sifting of applications for admission or by placing the children in families as rapidly as possible, are largely removed. This objection has special force when the amount paid by the county covers the entire cost, or nearly the entire cost, of the maintenance of the children.

The present unfortunate state of affairs in New York City and some other large cities of the State is not due altogether to the law concerning the removal of children from almshouses. The penal code enacted in 1881 authorizes police magistrates to commit destitute children to charitable institutions, the expense of their support to be borne by the city; and in New York City at least this is the favorite method of commitment. But, however it came about, the situation certainly is serious when one child of every hundred in the whole State, and in New York City one child of every thirty-five,

is being reared under the unnatural influences of institution life, prolonged in most cases for a period of several years. Institutions for the care of dependent and neglected children have attained in New York City such a luxuriant growth as has never before been seen in America, and I think not in the whole world. An institution containing only two or three hundred children seems to be of very moderate size when compared with our institutions containing five hundred children, a thousand, fifteen hundred, eighteen hundred, two thousand, twenty-five hundred.

Under these circumstances it is interesting to recall the prediction of Miss Florence Davenport Hill in "The Children of the State" (p. 222). After a graphic description of the evils of institutional life, she says, "The beginning of the end, however, of such institutions was sighted when in April, 1875, an act was obtained from the New York legislature forbidding the commitment of children to poorhouses." In view of our later experience in large cities it would seem that that was only the beginning of the beginning, and that the end is not yet in sight.

California, under a somewhat similar system, supports one child of every hundred in the State in a private charitable institution.

2. The county system of Ohio, Connecticut, and Indiana, aims to provide in each county a temporary home for children, supported by public taxation and under the control of public officials. It is claimed for this system that the institutions may be kept small, thus reducing the evils of institutionizing to a minimum, and that local influences and the interest of benevolent people may be enlisted to nearly the same extent as in the private asylum system.

It is urged against this system that the large number of these homes, one in each county or one in every two or three counties, tends to increase the number of children to be cared for. It is the same Banquo's ghost which appears in every field of charitable work. The provision for assistance seems to create or at least to suggest the need of help: the supply tends to create the demand. The tendency to enlarge the institutions is also fostered by a local pride more enthusiastic than intelligent. It must be said that the facts seem to give force to this objection. Ohio and Connecticut, while supporting fewer children in proportion to their population than New York and California, do provide for a considerably larger number than those States which have a single institution. Ohio supports

one child to seventeen hundred of its population. Michigan, an adjoining State, supports one child to ten thousand population; Minnesota, one child to nine thousand; Wisconsin, one child to eight thousand. Connecticut, with its temporary home in each county, supports one child to eight hundred of the population. The adjoining State, Rhode Island, with a single institution, supports one child to three thousand population. It is a fact also that two of the temporary homes of Connecticut are larger than the School for Dependent Children of the whole State of Michigan or Minnesota or Wisconsin or Rhode Island.

3. By the State system is meant the establishment of a single institution in the State, supported by State taxation and under the immediate control of the State authorities, all public money being withheld from private institutions. An active placing-out system is made a part of the plan.

The advantages claimed for this plan are: —

a. By placing the children under the guardianship of the State and by removing them from the neighborhood in which they have lived, safeguards are provided against the undue unloading of children upon public support.

b. By making an active placing-out agency an integral part of the system, the duration of institutional life is made very brief, and children are soon restored to the more natural life of the family and the community. As a result of these two features, the number of children to be cared for at any given time at public expense is small, and the burden of taxation is never excessive.

It is urged against the State system: —

a. That it is subject to the influences of partisan politics and the uncertainties of the spoils system; that trustees, superintendents, officers, and teachers are apt to be selected, not because of fitness for their positions, but because of political services or influence; that, with every change of the political majority, the whole body of officials, as well as the Board of Control, will very likely be removed, and new and inexperienced persons of doubtful qualifications placed in charge; and that the plan does not enlist the co-operation and support of those citizens of the community who do not participate actively in politics.

The experience of these institutions furnishes arguments for and against this position. When one political party has been in the as-

cendency for a term of years, men of excellent qualities of mind and heart have been secured and retained as trustees and officers. In some cases, when the political majority has shifted, no serious changes have been made in the official staff; but in other cases, under like circumstances, the whole body of officials, together with the Board of Control, have been unceremoniously dismissed.

b. That a placing-out system is exposed to dangers as grave as those attending the asylum system. If children are scattered broadcast over the State or if their interests are not guarded by an efficient supervision, the results will be disastrous. It is certainly true that some of these State institutions have not at all times realized their ideal in this direction. The same danger, however, attends placing out from a county home or from a private asylum; and the question resolves itself into this, Can the State secure as efficient and reliable agents as private charity?

c. It is said, too, that conditions in different States differ,— that a system which works well in Michigan and Rhode Island would not necessarily work well in New York or Ohio or California.

4. The boarding system of Pennsylvania differs radically from these we have described, in that no institution is used. When the law was passed requiring the removal of children from almshouses, the county authorities were left free to make such other provision for the children as they desired. Most of the counties have accepted the co-operation of a private organization, the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania. Under their plan all children are sent directly to families, who are paid a reasonable sum for their care and maintenance. From these boarding homes they may be transferred to free homes, as in other States they are transferred from a central institution to free homes, or, as often happens, they are kept permanently and without payment for board after a few months or a year or two by the family which received them as boarders. The advantages claimed for the plan are: —

a. That the children are at all times subject only to the natural influences of family life.

b. That very many children who could not be placed in families without payment for board, because they are not attractive or are subject to some slight physical weakness or mental peculiarity or moral perversity, may find permanent homes in the community by being first boarded in families until their faults are corrected.

c. That safeguards are provided against the unloading of children upon the public in the fact that parents do not desire to see their children sent to *other* families, either temporarily or permanently.

The following objections are offered: —

a. That the payment for children in families will reduce the demand for children in families without payment for board. It is claimed, however, by those who are familiar with the boarding system in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts that it assists rather than retards the finding of free homes.

b. That there is no assurance of the continuity of the system, since it all depends upon voluntary co-operation between public officials and a private society, either of whom may at any time adopt some other plan.

The Massachusetts system is, in its general features, a combination of the Pennsylvania boarding system and the State system of Michigan. There is a central State institution, the State Primary School, from which children are placed out in families, in free homes if approved free homes can be secured, in boarding homes if free homes are not available. Foundlings and other infants are boarded in families, from which many of them are adopted. Until recently children were not boarded after they had reached the age of ten years, but special cases may now be boarded for some time longer. The State Primary School is governed by a board of trustees: the placing in families and the boarding system are under the charge of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity. This State system is, however, only for the care of "the children of the *State*." The cities and towns seem to have no relation to the State system, and to make whatever provision for their children they may desire. Nor does there seem to be any supervision of their work by a central authority.

This combination of the boarding system with the central State institution and the placing in families without payment seems to me to be worthy of special notice. It seems to be true that, as communities grow older, the facilities for placing out children without payment grow less, and the demand is limited more and more to children of certain classes and certain ages. It seems to me probable, therefore, that the State institutions of Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Kansas may, not many years hence, find their facilities

for placing out children without payment decreasing, and the number of children to be cared for increasing. If such should prove to be the case, it is to be hoped that they will consider the advisability of combining the boarding system with their present methods rather than enlarging their institutions or building new ones.

May we not hope and believe that from the volume of experience now being gained in all these varying methods there is being evolved a system more perfect than any one of them, and to which they will all gradually be conformed?

THE REMOVAL OF CHILDREN FROM ALMSHOUSES IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

BY HON. WM. P. LETCHWORTH,

MEMBER OF STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES OF NEW YORK.

From what I have seen in an extended examination of town and city almshouses, county poorhouses, and county infirmaries,— institutions differing only in name,— I conclude that the condition of children in these places does not differ materially in any of the States, unless it be in the town almshouses of New England, in which, in consequence of limited numbers and closer supervision, the contamination is not so great. The moral and physical deterioration of children who are reared in the almshouse is so rapid that no State that tolerates the system can advance as it should in moral and intellectual strength, nor reduce to the minimum the burdens incident to the care of its dependent and criminal classes.

In the researches made by the New York State Board of Charities into the causes of pauperism and crime, in 1874, overwhelming proof was found that the keeping of children in almshouses greatly increased the number of public dependants, and was a prolific source of demoralization, — that kind of demoralization which, becoming ingrained in the individual, proves hereditary, its evil influence corrupting generation after generation.

In Ulster County we found twenty-one children in the poorhouse,

nine of whom were illegitimate. Three of them had pauper grandmothers, all had pauper brothers or sisters, four had pauper aunts, and three had pauper uncles. The father of two of the children and the mothers of fourteen of them were in the poorhouse.

In Essex County Poorhouse there were twenty-seven children, belonging to seventeen family groups, which produced seventy-four dependants in three generations.

In Herkimer County there were only six children in the poorhouse, but the institution was a pauper breeding-house. Three of the children had mothers in the poorhouse, and two had fathers there. The father of one of the boys was a pauper by habits and preference; and the mother had been a pauper from childhood, having grown up in the poorhouse. This family had produced eleven paupers in three generations.

I have cited these three county houses, not because they were the worst in the State, but to show the tendency under the old system to create hereditary pauperism in these institutions. As to the surroundings and associations to which these children were subjected, it would be pitiful to describe them; nor will I attempt to do so except by allusion to their condition in two or three counties.

In Steuben County, as was generally the case, the children were found in different parts of the poorhouse establishment. A girl eight or nine years old and three older children were in one of the wards in charge of a woman of debased character, who had a very irritable temper. She had been in the institution twenty months. She was strong and healthy, but could not retain for any length of time a home outside on account of her violent temper.

A group of boys were found in the wash-house, intermingled with the inmates, and around the cauldrons where the dirty clothes were boiling. Here was an insane woman raving and uttering wild gibberings; a half crazy man was sardonically grinning; and an overgrown idiotic boy was torturing one of the little boys, while securely holding him, by thrusting splinters under his finger-nails. The cries of the little one seemed to delight his tormentor as well as some of the older inmates who were looking on. The upper apartment of this dilapidated building was used for a sleeping-room. An inmate was scrubbing the floor, which was so worn that water came through the cracks in continuous droppings upon the heads of the little ones below, who did not seem to regard it as a serious annoyance.

The third group was in a back building, called the Insane Department. They were the most promising children of all, and yet the place was made almost intolerable by the groaning and sighings of one of the poor insane creatures. She was a hideous-looking object, and most of the time she was in an excited state. The children were not sent to school, nor was a school maintained upon the premises.

Reflecting upon the lot of these poor children, I was filled with unspeakable sadness. Born in destitution, bereaved of natural guardians, forced unwillingly upon the charity of the world and into surroundings where the purity, sweetness, and innocence of childhood were subjected to such soul-chilling influences, it seemed as if, could the tender plaints of such reach the ears of legislators, their wrongs would be speedily redressed.

In the Kings County Almshouse I found 375 children. The sense of confinement here oppressed me. The close rooms, the enclosed porches, the dim and disagreeable halls, and, above all, the yard walled by an insurmountable barrier, high as though it enclosed a State prison, and without, so far as I could see, one blade of grass or green leaf, made the place seem to me like a miniature Bastile. I mentally exclaimed: Wherein have these little ones offended, that they should be treated as prisoners of State? Is their childhood, which should be the happiest portion of their lives, to be thus spent, without human sympathy, without at least occasionally strolling in the green fields and parks or inhaling the sweet breath of flowers? Herded together in such confinement, surging hither and thither like a drove of dumb animals, these children need not cause us surprise if they sink into the most degrading and brutish habits.

There were in the nursery and children's hospital department of the New York City Almshouse 769 children, who had spent in the aggregate 1,115 years of child-life in the almshouse. Serving in the capacity of attendants, nurses, etc., upon these children, there were twenty-three pauper women and fifty-one women who belonged to the criminal class. Thirteen of the latter had been committed as vagrants, and thirty-eight for drunkenness and disorderly conduct. All of the criminals except four had been committed to prison more than once; and one of them, to use her own language, had been committed "times past counting for the past forty years." These women had been transferred from the workhouse to the children's

department, and the pauper women from the almshouse department. They were the companions of the children, moulding their plastic minds, and forming their characters by constant association with them.

From the foundation of the State children had been received into the town and city almshouses; and after the establishment of county poorhouses, in 1824, large numbers were admitted into these institutions. Through the efforts of Christian people to save children from commitment to these places of neglect, and to remove from the poorhouse such as had found a home there, orphan asylums were early established; but the gradual increase in population and in the number of dependent children made it impracticable to stem the ever-increasing tide of pauperism, and the bringing up of children under the poorhouse system grew into a gigantic evil. It was a subject to which our Board had given more or less attention since its organization, and one in which the Secretary of the Board, Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, manifested an abiding interest.

About the year 1873 a special effort was made to emancipate the State from this disgrace. By the action of boards of supervisors many counties were persuaded to take voluntary action to place their dependent children in families or orphan asylums; and in 1875 an act was passed by the legislature, requiring that all children over three * years of age should be removed from the poorhouses and almshouses, and placed in families, orphan asylums, or other appropriate institutions before the first day of January, 1876, and that none should be admitted to such institutions thereafter. At the time of the passage of this law there were about 3,000 children in the various poorhouses and almshouses of the State.

I am happy to be able to state that this is one of the laws that has received the hearty approbation of the people. Although several bills have been introduced in the legislature to repeal it, or exempt certain counties from its mandatory provisions, none have been favorably reported from the committees to which they were referred. The law not only remains intact, but it is enforced through the praiseworthy action of county and city officials, the watchfulness of the members, officers, and visitors of the State Board of Charities and the State Charities Aid Association. Except such as are in the Children's Hospital, under the care of the Commissioners of

* This act was subsequently amended, limiting the age to two years.

Charities and Correction of New York City, it may be said that there are virtually no healthy and intelligent children over two years of age in the poorhouses and almshouses of the State of New York.

Before the law referred to went into effect it was feared by some that there would be a large accumulation of children in the orphan asylums, and that there would be an increased tendency to institutionize children; but such did not prove to be the case. Considering the increase of population, there was hardly any perceptible increase in the ratio of children in the asylums for six years succeeding the passage of the law. This was owing doubtless to the adoption of a more active placing-out system by the asylums, to meet the emergency. Since 1881, however, there has been a very large increase of children under institutional care within the State, especially in the cities of New York and Brooklyn. This may be attributed in part to increased foreign immigration, a multiplication of institutions for children, in relaxed efforts to place out children in families, to a large increase of children who are partially supported by parents or guardians in asylums, but are not relinquished to the institution, and, I may add, to a change in the penal code in 1881, whereby magistrates were authorized to commit delinquent children to asylums. This increase, however, is not universal, as, for instance, in Erie County, in which Buffalo is situated, the number of children in the various asylums has increased by only about fifteen, while the general population has increased 150,000.

What has been accomplished in New York State can be accomplished in other States; and when at some future Conference it shall be announced from the platform that there are no children in the county poorhouses, county infirmaries, or town or city almshouses throughout the broad extent of our land, and that all dependent children under public care are removed from debasing associations and brought under elevating moral and religious influences, we may then feel that in one direction at least we have attained true wisdom in the dispensation of charity.

THE BOARDING SYSTEM FOR NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

BY MISS C. H. PEMBERTON,

ACTING SUPERINTENDENT OF THE CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

It is a striking fact that, whenever managers of institutions come together to compare methods, they always agree in stating that, if you *can* place a child in a good home, it is better than to keep it in the institution. They also agree in measuring the standard of their institution by its approach towards family life. They seem to me to be all engaged in imitating a good thing; but why not secure the "good thing" itself instead of the imitation? The "good thing," beyond all question, is a natural, healthy home life for a child. How can it be obtained?

In the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania we have tried all methods, and have adopted what, for want of a better term, we call the "boarding system." It is a very inadequate term. It leaves out the greater part of what we want to express,— the special care, the training, the learning how to work, the educational advantages, and much else,—and suggests only the one feature of payment. The English call it "boarding *out*," which I think is worse still. The children are generally pretty well "out" when they come to us,— out of home and care and love and everything that a child needs. Our business is to get them, as quickly as possible, *into* love and care and proper home life. So I would rather call it "boarding in." I do not think it is worth while to discuss what may be done with the bright, attractive, well-raised child, of good antecedents, whom misfortune throws temporarily into our hands. That kind of a child may be trusted generally to make its own way. Its birth-marks are recognized everywhere, and it speedily shapes its own career. All agree that this kind of child is born for family life; but what about that other kind of child, the type with which every orphan asylum and reformatory is familiar?

The Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania exists chiefly to take

care of that other kind of child. Whenever we hear of a child that nobody wants, that every institution closes its doors against, that is unlovable, incorrigible, full of bad habits, that is sickly, diseased, nervous, with sore eyes and sore head,— a poor, maimed, halting thing that the world shoves out of sight,— we say, "This is a case for the Children's Aid Society, for we know how to take care of it." This is the kind of child that most needs family life, that is most injured by the institution. The longer it remains in the institution, the less fitted is it to enter the family.

The larger percentage of our children belong to this class. They come to us after years of contamination in almshouses, after years of parental neglect and street life. They come to us convicted of crime in the criminal court, accomplished little pickpockets and thieves; and we ask only one condition, that they be still children in years, however old they may be in the knowledge of things evil. If they are little and young, we can deal with them as children, and make them over into the likeness of a better humanity.

I admit that we could not deal with them if we had to keep them under one roof. We do not divide them into classes of twenty or ten or five or three or even two. We deal with them one by one, providing for each a paid superintendent, a paid matron, and a whole institution to itself. I am sure you would not ask your matron to take care of fifty boys for love, or for what work she could get out of them. Neither do we ask our matrons to take care of one child for nothing. The right care of a child is worth paying for, and we pay our matrons and care-takers in proportion to their task. In this way we secure exactly what a neglected child needs, — devoted personal interest and supervision in a genuine home. It costs us from $1.75 to $2.00 or $2.50 per week to take care of each child. I do not recommend it as a cheap system. It is expensive all the way through, except in results; but it is beyond question the best and safest way to take care of the most difficult class of children. It insures their education and industrial training without sacrificing their liberty, their self-reliance, and their opportunity to make home ties.

We have two distinct ends in view in boarding a child. One is to give it an opportunity to win affection and a permanent home for itself: the other is to secure moral training and a wholesome environment for the child of neglect. Very ordinary, unattractive children, when taken to board by childless families, awaken a senti-

ment which frequently deepens into a strong affection; and the child remains permanently in the family after the payment of board has ceased. No one seeking to adopt a child would select that sickly, unattractive little one from the inmates of an orphan asylum. Such a child usually remains an orphan for life. Only the boarding system has the power to surround it with that halo of individual interest which makes every baby boy in a real home a king by divine right.

The other use of the boarding system brings it into a mild rivalry with the reformatory. The children of neglect become the children of crime, not because they always inherit criminal tendencies, but because their associations and training are criminal. They need the exclusive personal care of a father and mother, the stimulus of a new environment, and the prompt removal from present temptation far more than they need the locked step, the daily drill, the enforced task, and the unavoidable but deadly intercourse with criminal companions in a reform school. The boarding system offers a very simple solution to this problem of the child criminal.

It says to the reformatory, "You may deal with the criminal: we will take care of the child." If he is little and young, the chances are that he is two-thirds child and only one-third criminal. There is something to build on in the child: there is nothing to build on in the criminal. We prefer to begin at the child end.

The boarding system, to be properly carried on, must be conducted on business principles, as it is in our society. We employ an expert book-keeper, a trained clerk, and two or more visiting agents, whose whole time is given to the work. We make no use of volunteer workers. Thorough investigation of every case and every applicant — not by one method, but by all methods — is indispensable to the boarding system. We accept nothing on faith.

An important factor in elevating the self-respect of the children is the way they are clothed. We have been accused of extravagance in this matter of clothing, but it is our experience that it is essential to clothe the child up to the standard that prevails in the neighborhood where the child is placed. We countenance no perceptible social barriers between our children and those of the neighborhood. Ours must be on the same level if they are to benefit by the boarding system. They must go to church with the family, they must be taken along when they "go visiting," they must eat at the same table, and in every way partake of the family and social life in which they are

placed. It is impossible to exact this if they are dressed in such a fashion as to suggest social inferiority or the brand of charity. Fortunately, the style of dress in country neighborhoods is simple, and in many places exceedingly primitive; but, such as it is, our children are required to live up to it. And I think nothing works in a short time such a marvellous change in the self-respect of a boy or girl as to be dressed "like other children." We bear the expense of clothing all our boarding children.

It is my experience that boys are as fond of dress as girls. When toys, candy, and picture-books fail to cheer the frightened little ragamuffin brought to us from the streets, he never fails to respond to the seductive flattery of a new suit of clothes, which seems to say to him, "You must be of some account, or they would not dress you like this"; and his face is wreathed with smiles from that moment.

TERMS ON WHICH CHILDREN SHOULD BE PLACED IN FAMILIES.

BY HERBERT W. LEWIS,

AGENT OF THE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS, WASHINGTON, D.C.

To my mind, legal adoption is the most desirable arrangement which can be secured for a considerable proportion of the children whose natural home conditions are necessarily replaced by others more or less artificial. After that will come binding out at trades, the facilities for which are — thanks to the trades-unions — exceedingly limited, hiring out at service for such wages as children are able to earn, the arrangement usually known as indenture, the protracted probation either in the home of parents or others, and boarding out.

Every society and organization which deals with children in large numbers, and receives all such classes as are usually spoken of as dependent and delinquent, in order to do good work in the way of placing such children in homes, must, it seems to me, use most or

all of these different arrangements. For each of them there is a corresponding class of children for whom nothing else will do as well.

Those will be in the best position to do successful placing-out work who have full legal control of their beneficiaries. And, for securing this control, nothing is so simple in the end and so effective at all times as the legal and binding commitment by a court of justice, specially empowered to examine into cases of abuse, immoral surroundings, and hurtful poverty, and to dispose of such cases as the circumstances warrant.

We cannot set about the choice of homes for children until we have made selection by necessity or from choice of the field wherein we propose to prosecute that work. If it is a matter of choice, we will naturally look to the locality where can be found the largest number of desirable homes for the different varieties which we propose to use. If we have many sorts of children, we will need many sorts of homes. And, if we want them near together, we will not seek them on the granite hills of New England, nor beside the Palisades of the Hudson, nor among the market gardeners of New Jersey, nor among the fish and oyster men along the Chesapeake, nor in the "Old Dominion," nor among the ranchmen of Texas, nor on the sand-hills of Western Kansas and Nebraska, nor the wild and stormy prairies of the Far North-west, but in the Great central West, where there are the most and best opportunities to learn trades and practise professions, and where nobody asks who or what my father was, but only whether I show myself an honorable contributor to the general prosperity and moral health of the community.

Given possession of the children, and having chosen a field, we are ready to seek homes and study adaptation. We shall look for homes, not places to stay; for fathers and mothers, not masters and mistresses or keepers of boarding-houses. We shall expect to find open doors, associations, opportunities, and education. And, if we never place a child until we have found these of such quality and in such degree as fits the capacity and necessity of some particular child, we shall have begun well.

A considerable number of children will be wanted for legal adoption. They will be first golden-haired and blue-eyed little girls from two to eight years of age; and some of them will be wanted as pets

and means of amusement by idle women, who have but little appreciation of the responsibility incurred. Others will be wanted to fill gaps caused by the untimely loss of little ones, and still others as sisters to the sons of the household. Boys will be wanted for "Little Lord Fauntleroys," as playmates and protectors for others younger, for office and errand boys, and to satisfy the longing of lonely wives and husbands who have no sons. Infants of both sexes will be wanted in childless homes. In all cases, being convinced that there is a genuine desire for an adopted child, and not a mere passing fancy, and being satisfied of the high character of the home, and having a child whom it might be reasonably expected would be adaptable to the home proposed, the child should be placed on trial, a temporary agreement being entered into by the terms of which the placing-out agency should reserve the right to recall the child at any time within one year; and, if not so recalled, it should be understood that legal consent is to be given to the final adoption. The persons adopting should reserve the right to return the child at any time during the year for which the agreement is entered into. Notice of intention to return the child should be given in advance, and it should contain a statement of all the reasons why the child has been found undesirable for adoption. They should agree to be responsible for the safety and welfare of the child while on trial, and to apply to the local tribunal having the matter in charge where they reside for a decree of adoption at or before the expiration of the time for which the agreement is made. This decree of adoption, when granted, should make the child heir-at-law of the persons adopting, as well as give it, legally, the family name and any individual name chosen by the parties at the time of the adoption. To all applications for the adoption of children from twelve years old and upward, we should reply that the terms are uniformly $3 per week. The adoption of children should not be urged at any time. There may come times when the conscientious supervisor of placed-out children will feel that he can, profitably, suggest that foster-parents adopt as their own children who have been in their home as wards of the placing-out agency for a considerable time, and the arrangement has been thoroughly proved. Often the visiting agent hears expressions of affection and the sense of companionship between children and foster-parents which spring from very substantial sources; and sometimes he knows that, if it should

be desired by the family after mature deliberation, the legal adoption of the child might be safely consummated. Under these circumstances he can properly suggest that "perhaps you would like to give this child your name and make it heir to your property. If so, I think I could arrange it for you. Think over it until I come again."

For children who are not placed by adoption and who, for one reason or another, are unable to earn wages, but for whom it is still not necessary to pay board, the indenture is to be recommended in preference to all such loose and irresponsible methods as leave the matter of terms and change of home to self-adjustment, guided by caprice. Contrary to the commonly entertained idea, I should be inclined to use the indenture largely, perhaps principally, for the protection of the foster-parent against outside interference. For this purpose it should contain a clause by which he reserves the right to return the child whence it was received at any time within a certain specified limit which is agreed upon as a term of trial. It should delegate to him all the powers and authority which a parent has over a child. It should contain an agreement for the payment of a sum of money at a certain time for the benefit of the child, and *pro rata* of that amount for the time the child remains under his control, if not for the full term of indenture. In addition, it should provide for the payment to the child of a small sum in cash each month or quarter.

These last two provisions will be of great service to the foster-parent by furnishing a defence against the meddlesome interest of neighbors, who tell placed-out children so often that they are working for nothing. In case of change of home the *pro rata* money should not be paid to the child, but deposited to his credit where it will be secure, and should be paid to him at the expiration of the term for which he was originally indentured, or when, in the judgment of his legal guardians, he is capable of using it wisely. A copy of the indenture should invariably be left with the foster-parents. It is the visible evidence of his legal claim to the custody of the child. It furnishes an incontestable basis for settlement, and puts out of the question a suit for the collection of wages after the child has attained majority. If the child abandons his home against the wishes of both his foster-parents and the placing-out agency, he should forfeit the money and clothing due him under his

indenture; but the indenture must be so drawn that it will be possible for the placing-out agency to enforce the collection of the *pro rata* in all such cases. The decision as to the equities in the case must be left with the placing-out agency, advised by its own agents, who have repeatedly visited the child in the home, and know all the circumstances and surroundings of the case, as well as the character and disposition of the child.

For the protection of the child and in justice to the institution or society doing the work of placing children in homes, all indentures should contain such provision regarding education as will insure a thorough grounding in the branches usually taught in the public schools, or at the very least a working knowledge of the rudiments of those branches. Attendance at the public schools for a certain definite number of days each year should be provided for and rigidly insisted upon. The schooling thus provided for should never be less than that required by any compulsory education law which may be in force in the locality. Often it should be twice as much. Promises of home teaching are rarely to be taken seriously. Not only so, but our American public schools, when at their best, are helpful outside of the lessons and exercises recited to the teacher.

Every child sent to a home is supposed to have had some preliminary training. If sent out from a well-ordered institution, he has had a private receptacle for his various belongings, and has been taught to keep them in order. Upon his departure he should be furnished with a neat strong box or trunk, containing a reasonable supply of clothing. Inside the cover should be tacked a linen card bearing a list of the articles contained in the trunk, which list should be made a part of the indenture; and it should be provided as a permissible minimum that that supply of clothing should be kept good constantly. Thereafter the supervisors should satisfy themselves that this requirement is strictly complied with.

In regard to attendance at religious worship I would make no provision; but I would see to it that visiting agents inquired as to the practice of both child and family in this regard, and non-attendance would have its due weight among the reasons for refusing an application in the first instance or seeking a readjustment. If there is not an earnest, active spirit of piety permeating the home, no contract provision can supply that lack.

The age at which children should be discharged upon their own

responsibility will be found in most cases to be between sixteen and nineteen years. Probably eighteen will meet the approval of most workers in these lines. I would write every indenture to expire on the eighteenth birthday of the child. I would have the cash payment made to the treasurer of the placing-out society, and I would exercise my judgment as to whether the money should be at once handed over to the young man or woman or invested for his or her benefit by the legal guardian. If the attempt is made to hold children in their homes by means of an indenture or by the exercise of authority after they are convinced that they can improve their condition elsewhere, it will simply be to invite defeat and send many of them off in a dishonorable way, will cause the forfeiture of the wages due them, and will leave in their minds a sense of injustice and spirit of rebellion, which will go a long way towards neutralizing any good influence which may have been brought to bear upon them. Most children, when properly looked after, can be kept in well-selected homes until eighteen years of age, if it can be made to their advantage to stay, and they can be convinced of that fact. Very few could be kept in the homes selected for them until twenty-one years of age, even supposing it advisable that they should be. The indenture must reserve to the placing-out agency the right to recall the child whenever his interest demands such action.

Children from twelve years old and upward should rarely be placed on indenture. Most of them can readily be found homes where, in return for their services, they will receive kind and proper treatment, parental care and oversight, and small wages in addition. They should be carefully watched over and advised as to the proper use of the money earned; and during a liberal part of each year the services expected of them should be reduced, the payment of wages suspended, and they should attend school.

Finally, the success of any system will depend, not on set and inflexible rules, but on adaptability. At every step in the successful prosecution of the work of placing children in homes, discriminating judgment and insight into human nature are imperatively demanded.

Child character is too many-sided, and the work presents too many complications, to ever be bound down to fixed and settled details. While there are certain general principles which govern, the nice adjustment in each case must be left to those who know first of all the children to be placed, and next the families into which

they are to be received. Every successful home-finder seeks and expects to get for his boys and girls far more than can be expressed in the indenture or boarding agreement or decree of adoption, that which can never be bought, but is freely given in thousands of foster-homes all over our land. Let his terms be what they will, if his duties as investigator of homes and supervisor of his wards are performed in a careless or perfunctory manner, he will have but a dismal experience; but let him regard his work as a threefold undertaking, involving equal duties towards the children, the homes, and the placing-out agency, let him have conscience, fearlessness, and discrimination, and there is no reason why he should not overcome the difficulties, and contribute to the success of many hundreds of the most helpless and most deserving of all public dependants, the little children.

STATE CARE FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN:

THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF SUCH A SYSTEM.

BY C. A. MERRILL,

SUPERINTENDENT STATE PUBLIC SCHOOL, OWATONNA, MINN.

THE State Public Schools of Minnesota, Michigan, and Wisconsin are representatives of what has been termed an exclusive State system for the care of dependent children. Under this system the State takes charge of its dependent, neglected, and ill-treated children, and provides for them homes in private families, through a central institution, acting as an agency for their reception and distribution.

The projectors of this plan, after carefully examining the whole subject relative to the care of this class of children, undertook the task of formulating a plan by legislation that would remedy the defects of some of the more prominent systems.

Among the reasons for enlisting the State government in this enterprise is the crying need of a systematic and comprehensive plan, backed by means to carry it into effect. Through its machinery the provision applies to all in the State. It is prompted by the same motive as that which led to the establishment of the free

public schools. The State, in protecting these children from wrong and neglect, is protecting itself. The work is supported by taxation on property. All citizens are equally interested and benefited, and all contribute according to their means.

Through this plan the children needing State care are reached in every county. It is made the duty of the commissioner of every county in the State, whenever he finds in his district a child dependent or in manifest danger, to take steps at once toward having it placed under the care of the State, which receives it into the State School, and in the course of a few months places it in a family home.

This system, in comparison with the system of county or district homes, does not require large expenditures for buildings. There being only one institution for the entire State, it can be constructed on the most approved plan, and the equipments can be of the best without great expense to the public. Sufficiently high salaries can be paid to secure teachers and matrons of ability.

The tendency in private institutions, supported by the State wholly or partially, is to retain the children for a longer period than is necessary or beneficial, as in New York and California. Under such conditions institutions are multiplied, and their support becomes a heavy burden. The law governing the State institutions where an exclusive State system has been adopted, as in Minnesota, Michigan, and Wisconsin, requires that due diligence be exercised in finding family homes for the children; and the results of the work in those States show that the law is complied with. In my State (Minnesota) the average time that children are maintained in the State Public School is ten months; and this time, a school year, spent in the institution, located on a farm in the country, organized and conducted on the family plan, under teachers of high talent, thus affording the best educational advantages, has proved to be beneficial to the children, and afforded us an opportunity to become acquainted with them, study their needs, and provide for them according to their needs.

There are some children who, by reason of physical defects, the loss of a leg or an arm, are unfitted for family adoption. The institution under the State system described affords to such the comforts and advantages of a home and school, and trains them in some industry for life occupation.

An economic and hopeful phase of the State Public School plan is that the agencies at work promptly relieve the public burden, and have thus far proven adequate to care for the children that have been thrown upon the public for support. No intelligent child in Minnesota need go without a home. None mentally and physically sound, above two years of age, can be found in the poorhouses of the State. California, with a population a little less than that of Minnesota, is caring for 4,000 children in private and sectarian asylums, at an annual cost to the State of $250,000. Minnesota is supporting an average of 160 children, at an annual cost of $26,800, and is maintaining supervision of 600 that have been placed in homes, at an annual cost of $3,000, making the total annual cost to the State for dependent children $29,800.

The State, while commending and encouraging private effort, can, under its own direction, wisely take charge of those not reached through other agencies, and provide for them homes among its citizens. It can command the means and carry on the work economically and efficiently, and the results produced through the operation of this plan must constitute the ground upon which its merits are judged.

VIII.

Reformatories.

GENERAL CULTURE IN STATE SCHOOLS.

BY WALTER LINDLEY, M.D.,

SUPERINTENDENT WHITTIER STATE SCHOOL, CALIFORNIA.

I shall endeavor to classify this address under four heads: Clothing, Manner, Language, and Heart. When I first took up the work of inaugurating and conducting a juvenile reformatory, it was with the idea that we were to do a rough work in a rough way, and that it was just as well to have roughly dressed men. If you had visited the Whittier School during the first few weeks of its existence, you would have seen that we were wearing out our old clothes, that our laundry bills were small, that our shoes usually went unblacked, and that we thought an old, flimsy hunting-shirt was good enough for all ordinary occasions. The idea that this was a school, not a penal institution, had not yet been fully accepted. If the superintendent dresses carelessly, the officers will dress carelessly, and the boys will continue to look like street Arabs. The so-called school will soon become a rough place for rough boys, to be managed in a rough way by rough people.

Soon my eyes became opened to the real merit of the great work. The true proposition is to take these boys and girls, and make of them self-supporting, self-respecting citizens. To do that, we must pay some attention to the outward appearance. Example counts for far more than precept. The officer on the drill ground, the instructor in the shops, the clerk in the office, will all find that well-blacked shoes, and neatly brushed, clean clothing, will have a potent influence toward raising the standard of all around them. The teacher in the school-room should dress fully as well as she would if teaching in

the schools of our cities. Every one connected with our State or industrial or reform schools should remember that, if these boys, at this impressionable stage of their lives, are encouraged in the idea of roughness of dress, this roughness will go with them throughout their lives; and it will not remain wholly in their dress.

Money paid by officers connected with our State schools for laundry work, clothes-cleaning, and blacking-brushes, is money well invested. We are trying to make successful men of these boys; and our reason for wishing them to be neat and cleanly is not æsthetic, it is utilitarian. The bright-faced boy, with well-kempt hair, clean clothing, and shining shoes, has five chances of securing employment to where the dirty boy has one.

Let us, then, begin our reformation of this boy whom the State has adopted by imbuing him with a love for cleanliness, and a manly pride in having a respectable personal appearance.

Manner.

In regard to manner, this reaches a little deeper; and he who enters upon his duties as officer or teacher in a juvenile reformatory with the idea that a rough, uncouth way is the correct method of ingratiating himself with his pupils, and of getting their respect and good-fellowship, will soon discover that he has committed a fatal error, and that he had better depart to pastures new.

No, realize the responsibility and the dignity of your position, and be more careful as to your manner than if you were with people of the highest station in life. Should you pursue a boorish, ungentlemanly course with these boys, you will quickly lose their respect; and yet the example of ill-breeding that you, their teacher, have given, will cling to them, and handicap them throughout life. Do you wish to get in close communion with your pupils? Then do not get down on a level with them, but lift them to a level with you. Getting down injures the teacher and pupil, while lifting up the pupil also benefits the teacher.

Manner and culture are thoroughly and graphically exemplified by the method in which an officer investigates wrong-doing. Suppose an officer learns that some boy in a group of fifteen has tobacco: how will he locate it? First, the way not to do it, and yet the way it is often done. Marshal the fifteen boys in a line, accuse

them all of it, and go through all their pockets, and thus practically brand them all as thieves and liars; and, with an ease of mind that is the reward of good works, this teacher goes to his private office, lights a cigar, and takes a nice, quiet smoke.

Friends, it is better that the fifteen boys have their pockets full of tobacco than that they should be thus branded and disgraced before their fellows. Take the suspected boys, one at a time, and talk to them. Thus you will reach them, thus you may inspire them with a realization of the evils of the tobacco habit, and make them feel you are their friend. This indiscriminate searching of pockets is degrading and humiliating. It snuffs out the spark of manhood yet remaining in a boy.

We have some peculiar experiences. A few weeks ago one hundred of our boys went with me to Los Angeles, which is thirteen miles away, and gave an entertainment for the benefit of the Associated Charities of that city. We had a most successful time; but after we had been in that city about an hour, and before the entertainment began, I happened to lay my hand on the arm of one of our young men about sixteen, and touched a hard protuberance between the shoulder and the elbow. "What is that, Johnson?" The boy looked confused, and said, "It is a package of tobacco," and pulled the package out, and handed it to me.

"I didn't think that of you," was my comment. Then the tears came to the boy's eyes; and he broke down completely, and said, "Here is another," and reached under the sleeve of the other arm, and pulled out another package. I never felt so contemptible in all my life; and, if I hadn't been superintendent, I would have given both packages back to the boy. God bless that boy! He has been taught electrical engineering at the Whittier School; and to-night, as we are gathered here in Nashville, he is away over on the Pacific Coast, in full charge of an electric plant worth $50,000.

Let us by precept and example impress upon our American boys the injurious effects of the use of tobacco; but we are not justified in publicly disgracing or reprimanding a boy who has used tobacco almost from babyhood, for endeavoring to take a quiet smoke, when almost every illustrious American, North and South, is an inveterate smoker. Really, you know, we have almost too high an opinion of the street Arabs, who to a great extent form our schools, when we expect of them, in the use of tobacco, a display of more wisdom and

self-denial than we expected from General Grant or President Cleveland. Publicly disgracing a boy, branding him, or putting a thief tag on him, never did any good for one who had an intellect. Take the thoughtless officer who finds something wrong in a company of fifty boys. He desires, justly, to know who committed the evil act. He calls them all up in line, and goes after them, and gets exasperated at his failure, and finally says, "You must stand there until you tell me who did this." Now, there are just three ways for that officer to get out of the trap he has set for himself. First, the boy who did the wrong may be a manly fellow, and, to save his fellows an unjust punishment, may step forward and acknowledge his fault. Second, there may be a contemptible sneak in the company, who, to curry favor with the officer, will slink forward, and tell who was the guilty one. Third, the captain may squarely back down. As far as I am concerned in such a crisis, I sympathize with the boys; and, if I were a member of that company, I should feel like standing there until I fell through lack of physical strength before I would become a tale-bearer.

When the California School was first opened, I had an experienced assistant who was highly recommended. In a few months he came to me with great pride, and said he had his detective system all completed.

"What detective system?" I asked.

He then unfolded to me a scheme by which he had developed in every company of fifty boys two juvenile Pinkertons, who were to spy and eavesdrop on their fellows, and report daily to him. Well, that officer's work was undone as quickly as possible.

The whole system of espionage and tale-bearing by boys tends to dwarf and dry up the noblest attribute of man, and put a premium on traits that go to make up Benedict Arnolds and Judas Iscariots.

Pardon the digression; but, if that captain had thought for a moment, he would have concluded that, while he could have taken any one of those boys alone and reasoned with him, and learned all about the wrong-doing, yet, when he took the whole company, there was a solid combination of fifty minds against his.

It is a great force, the combined minds of fifty boys; and, aside from the debasement and injury to the self-respect of every member of the company, the officer, as a rule, fails to find out that little thing he desires to know until he takes these boys aside, separately,

where his mind can come in contact with one boy at a time. The laws of the land may be justified in publicly disgracing a man for its deterrent effect on others; but we, who are appointed by the State to fill the position of parent toward these heretofore unfortunate children, are never justified in publicly disgracing even the least of these because of the lasting injurious effects upon that growing mind.

When the Duke of Wellington became old and feeble, he would boast, with the childish license of old age, that he could cross the busiest thoroughfares of London, and never experience any danger from horses or vehicles. He never knew that from the highest authority in the government went forth an order secretly to throw for protection a cordon of police around the grim old warrior. So in this country we are appointed by the State to throw a cordon of love around these little fellows during childhood and youth; and may God help us to perform this sacred duty, so that there will be no disgrace attached to their association with us, and that they, like Wellington, will never realize that the hand of the law was invoked to protect them!

Language.

To maintain a habit of using pure, clean English is very difficult. Here we are, officers, teachers, and superintendents, in the midst constantly of from three hundred to one thousand boys, educated in the vernacular of the slums, and in the majority of cases in the special jargon of the jails; and, involuntarily, we are soon adopting many of their words and phrases instead of impressing them with our forms of speech. In other words, the boys become the instructors, and we become the pupils.

I received a note from one of our most experienced officers a few days since. He is an excellent man, who came highly recommended from two Eastern institutions. It seems a boy in his class had done something wrong; but, as I translated his note, he thought best to give the boy further trial before resorting to any punishment. His note said, "I recommend giving the boy a few days *floater* on the proposition." If he would use such language in a note to the superintendent, he would be far more likely to use it in speaking to the boys. When an officer picks up such terms, it shows that he has mingled with the boys so long that he has allowed their influence to

overwhelm him; and, instead of the boy learning from him, he is taking lessons from the boy.

Another officer said, "One of my boys, during my absence yesterday, took a *sniff*." I learned on inquiry that "sniff" meant "smoke." Another said, "That boy Hulburt has a habit of *jiggering* his work." Another officer, a graduate of a noted Eastern college, cries out, "Stop that *wind jabbing* on the right of the line!"

Here we are, officers and teachers, paid by the State to teach these boys manners, teach them language, teach them trades, and instruct them in military tactics; and we become the pupils, and the boys the teachers. Yet we continue to draw our salaries with equanimity.

All such slang expressions weaken a man's influence, and a woman's, too; but I have never known of a woman in our California school using such language. Such terms invariably come from the stronger sex.

Let us, then, remember our position, and endeavor to keep our language clean and fit to repeat. If we are overwhelmed by our boys during the day, let us spend a few minutes each evening with Goldsmith, Addison, or Washington Irving,— those everlasting fountains of pure English,— and thus refresh ourselves for the following day's duties.

The Heart.

Now, in my classification under four words, the last is the one which affects them all. The heart is the leaven which should cause us all to do right in the other three points.

Without the heart being right, there is no right. If a man is in this work simply for salary, then the heart cannot be right. A man or woman who is here, to be successful, must have within him the religious spirit.

I am no stickler for church or dogmas, but still realize that we must, in this great work, have within us the spirit of brotherly love as exemplified and expounded by Almighty God through his Son, our Saviour. Jesus was the first to sympathetically set the great example of reaching down to the poor and destitute, and giving them the preference, *the preference*, over those who are more fortunate in their station in life. He first taught us our duty to children. He is the chief exemplar for us in this work with poor, unfortunate chil-

dren; and we cannot succeed unless we have the spirit of his teachings in our hearts.

Here we are, friends, engaged in the greatest work being done to-day on the face of the earth. Compare it with others. Let us look at General Booth, for instance,— the work of the Salvation Army. There is no doubt that it is a useful work. It reaches down, and takes the adult unfortunate, as a rule, and lifts him up. There, it is a holy, religious fervor that very often is evanescent; and the converts fall back again. But here in these schools we are reaching down to the very lowest stratum of society, and taking the hopeful portion of that stratum,— the little children,— and making pure, self-respecting, self-supporting men and women.

Look for a moment at the work of our great universities. You have here your Vanderbilt, of which I have heard much praise; but I shall speak of Stanford, which would be the college I would select for my own son. Endowed with twenty millions, located in a most beautiful spot, with a faculty of thorough-going American scholars, imbued with a true democratic spirit, and with over one thousand students, Stanford is indeed a noble institution; but it takes the higher stratum of society, the stratum that could take care of itself, while we, in these State Industrial Schools, are beginning at the very foundation, with the lowest stratum; and, if we get that right, the world goes right. Make this foundation material right, and there will be no trouble about the superstructure.

It is your business and mine to show the world that by taking these boys in a loving spirit, and giving them the training and education that will conduce to their welfare, we can make of them as useful citizens as there are on the face of the globe.

The time will come when the boys from our State Industrial Schools will be not only a power, but a great power for good in these United States, because they are receiving the right kind of an education,— they are being taught to work. Then we can say of these boys as it was said by the Saviour, "The stone which the builders rejected has become the head of the corner." This is indeed a work of the heart. The head must be clear, but the heart must be warm.

A man may dress in taste, and have the manners and language of a Chesterfield: he may have the form of an Apollo, and may be as religious as Calvin or Savonarola; but, if his heart is not full to overflowing with love to his fellow-man, he will be a failure.

Some Spartans were once endeavoring to make a corpse stand alone. They kept trying, vainly trying, and finally a voice came from among those assembled, saying, "You cannot make that corpse stand alone until you put within it the invisible soul." When I see a man in one of these State schools who is trying to dress right, to use the right language and correct manners, spite of all failing in his work, I feel that it is my duty to say to that man, "You cannot make this work a success unless Almighty God breathes into your soul the invisible spirit of love and good will toward your fellow-man."

OUR WORK AND THE OUTLOOK.

BY JOHN T. MALLALIEU, KEARNEY, NEB.,

SUPERINTENDENT STATE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.

The growth of public sentiment in behalf of unfortunate humanity in our country has been wide-spread and substantial. In the earliest stages the work was confined to individual rather than organized efforts, and we find many touching illustrations of noble men and women who sacrificed time and means in order that the various kinds of charitable and corrective work might gain a foothold in communities, municipalities, and States. Their labors have been rewarded, and their devotion to duty and persistent sacrifices are examples worthy of imitation.

The work grew gradually in spite of selfish opposition and keen discouragements. Its development was not rapid, but the groundwork was carefully and prayerfully prepared. State organizations grew out of individual labors, and those who entered upon this new plan had the satisfaction of seeing the work move on more vigorously. The great duty of advocating and promoting the welfare of the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes could not be restricted to State lines; and hence was organized the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and with it a new era of development. Through its agency of bringing together annually representatives of various institutions a wonderful impetus has been given to every department of charitable and corrective work. Institutions have been strengthened, men and women have had greater

conceptions of their responsibilities, public sentiment has been educated to a higher conception of its obligation to humanity, people have been enlightened by the diffusion of the Conference literature, and public officers and legislative bodies have felt the power of this organization.

Our own work — that of caring for juvenile delinquents — has felt the wonderful influence of the National Conference; and each year brings us into closer relationship with the organization. During the past few years the development of our reformatory institutions has been wonderfully rapid. Since the organization of the New York House of Refuge in 1825 down to the present time, nearly two hundred thousand boys and girls have been placed under the fostering care of our institutions; and to-day fourteen thousand youths are being cared for morally, physically, intellectually, and in every other way by these institutions. Over sixteen hundred men and women are directly engaged in the great work of training this large army of unfortunates.

The increase of population in the United States during the decade ending 1890 was about twenty-five per cent., while the apparent increase in juvenile delinquents was about twenty-nine per cent. Statistics would therefore show that the increase of juvenile criminality was in excess of the increase of the general population of the country. Statistics are only relatively correct. If one confines himself to cold figures, without regard to other facts that should be considered with them, some very erroneous conclusions will be reached. It is particularly true in this instance. Instead of this apparent increase in the juvenile criminal population over the general population showing an increase in crime, it reveals the healthy moral and charitable condition of the people and the growth of sentiment in the different States in providing new or additional institutions for their care and custody instead of having these juveniles sent to county and city jails or penitentiaries. At least thirteen new reformatories were established during this decade, and seventy-four hundred pupils were placed in them. Nebraska, for instance, had no reformatory in 1880, and hence no juvenile delinquents were reported; but in 1890, when the census was taken, it had two hundred and thirty-seven pupils enrolled and in attendance. This does not signify that crime among our juveniles increased in our State in the proportion of zero to two hundred and thirty-seven. Other

States might be enumerated in the same manner, and it shows that they are taking more interest in this class by collecting and segregating youths in homes where they will be benefited.

From the English "workus" have been evolved, through successive stages, the modern industrial schools of our country, with their many conveniences for comfort and their advantages for improving the individual. In place of rickety, dingy buildings in some obscure quarter, where boys and girls were stored for the purpose of getting them out of public view, the modern schools are characterized for the architectural beauty of their buildings, convenience of arrangements, sightly and healthy locations, environed by verdant lawns, and adorned with flowers, shrubbery, and trees. Large playgrounds greet the eye of the new arrival; and the happy voices of children at their play cheer him, and make him realize that he is entering a home, and not a prison. The tattered garments which seemed to cover the person in the earlier institutions rather than protect him from cold, have given place to neat-fitting, warm, and attractive uniforms. The beds of straw on the rough, hard floor in an obscure corner have been replaced with tidy cots, warm bedding, good mattresses, and woven wire for them to be placed upon. Instead of one small porringer of gruel repeated each meal, day after day, and one onion twice a week (except when the sage and philosophical men who constituted the parochial board visited the "workus" on holiday occasions, at which time two and a quarter ounces of bread were given as a luxury), the tables of the modern reformatories are supplied with such wholesome food as characterizes a good country home. The experimental philosopher, who believed that a youth could subsist on the "smallest possible portion of the weakest possible food," and demonstrated his theory at a mortality rate of eight out of every ten cases, has been relegated to obscurity, and the practical philosopher, believing in bread, beef, and beans as assistant moralizing agencies, has taken his place.

The removal of pupils from the high-walled refuge in Philadelphia to the open-air country home at Glen Mills furnishes a striking illustration of the tendency of the age. We often hear of the congregate and cottage systems, the latter having been evolved from the former. The Pennsylvania school shows this evolution. I would not call them distinct systems, but modifications of one system; for each undertakes to educate and train its pupils along the same lines.

The difference is that the individual one gives better opportunity for health, physical development, and freedom than the other. Each has its votaries, and each has its strong and weak features. It is probable that the school of the future will combine the excellent features of both, and out of this combination a better system will yet be inaugurated than now prevails. The reformatory of to-day combines the elements of the fireside, the school, the church, society, the gymnasium, and the workshop, and aims to develop the pupil evenly along all these lines.

Moral Training.— Moral training in our institutions is not restricted exclusively to ethical discourses. It permeates every department, and is instilled with every duty. Precept and example go hand in hand. True character is not the result of artifice, trickery, or even skill. It is the result of "simple, open, healthy living in mind, heart, and body, keeping close to nature and life, steady work, loyalty to truth and honor," and obedience to divine injunctions. It is such teachings that the institutions inculcate day by day.

Educational Training.— Many of our reformatories afford as favorable opportunities for educational advancement to-day as did our best academies when the corner-stone of our first House of Refuge was laid nearly three-quarters of a century ago. All of them have courses of study superior to those in our common and district schools. The reports from sixty schools show that the pupils are instructed, on an average, four and one-half hours each day for nine months in each year, and that in many instances an hour of additional study is required each evening. If, then, we add the facilities for reading afforded by our libraries, periodicals, and newspapers, it needs no argument to show that the pupils in our schools have good educational and literary advantages, and that they make wonderful progress in their studies.

I believe there should be some educational requirement to entitle one to a parole, and that no pupil should leave an institution unless he is sufficiently advanced in the principles of the three "R's" to enable him to understand ordinary business transactions, such as he would meet with in every-day life, readily and clearly. There might be exceptions made to this rule in cases where permanent homes could be provided for orphan children.

Trade Teaching.— The decline of the apprenticeship system in our

country, and the restrictions which are thrown around trade-learning, present a serious condition of affairs. We need not be surprised at the large army of tramps that we annually see, or the large numbers of young men who are committed to our reformatories or who find their way behind prison bars, when so many are brought up in ignorance of the importance of honest labor.

A good mechanic in a family adds more dignity and honor to that family than a poor lawyer or doctor. Yet we Americans seem to dislike anything that smacks of continuous manual toil. We are too apt to award the palm of honor to the boy who dresses in fine clothes which he has never earned; and the boy whose manly independence leads him to throw off the finery of critical society and parental support, and to put on the tradesman's garb, is too often frowned upon. The former represents servile dependence; the latter, the nobility of true manhood. When boys have the manhood to do this, and parents have foresight enough to encourage them, then may we look for a better condition of affairs in our criminal records. There may be more danger to a government from idleness than from ignorance. The latter may develop wrong-doing: the former will surely do so. Our schools believe in practical trade teaching and manual training as the proper means to correct criminal and incorrigible tendencies.

The primary object of all trade teaching should be the good of the individual, with revenue as a secondary consideration. Hence the contract system in a reformatory is radically wrong. The work, and not the good of the workers, is the contractor's leading incentive. His interest in them is only mercenary. Inventive genius and mechanical ingenuity are supplanted by automatic machine drudgery. It is a pleasure to know that practical trade teaching adapted to the future requirements of the individual is now adopted in the best reformatories.

Manual Training.— While recognizing the value of specific trades, I believe the sloyd system is peculiarly adapted for reformatory education; and it is encouraging to know that the schools are introducing this system. Varied in its resources, practical in the multiplicity of its combinations, fruitful in its results, it leads up to industrious habits in such an easy and attractive manner that the pupil ceases to look upon his work with dislike, and a love for labor is begotten.

Victor Hugo asserts that "all crimes of the man begin in the vagabondage of the child." While this statement may seem overdrawn, yet our experience is that a large per cent. of juvenile delinquents can be traced directly to idle habits. A reform must come largely through processes of industry. The inventive genius heretofore displayed in devising criminal methods must be turned into channels of useful works. This industrial course must be varied in its nature, even as we vary the amusements of a child. This system furnishes this variety.

This training is a gradual development from the simplest architectural and mechanical principles to the more complex order of artistic ingenuity. Each step connects the results of yesterday with the possibilities of the morrow. The mind and hand are trained in unison, and through the well-directed use of both industrious traits are rapidly developed. This system requires a boy to depend upon himself: hence self-reliance is inculcated. He observes that each mistake is due to his own thoughtlessness, and that one mistake will affect the symmetry and nicety of his experiment: hence he acquires habits of carefulness.

Military Training.— Twenty-two schools have introduced military departments. There are many ways in which this training is beneficial. It aids those having charge in maintaining discipline, in moving pupils in and out of buildings, to and from the playgrounds, to meals and work, and other places where they go in details, squads, or grades. The erect posture, measured step, accurate lines, facility for handling large numbers at a word of command, induce habits of promptness, order, and regularity that are not lost in the school-room, at work, or other places of discipline. The outdoor exercise, soldierly position, expanded chest, the play given to so many muscles, and the pleasant and exhilarating feelings engendered are conducive to bodily health, grace, and strength. The reaction of this bodily training is favorable to mental activity. The strictness of attention and the co-operation of muscles necessary to secure precision and accuracy of movements in handling pieces and performing evolutions are no mean factors in enabling a boy to obtain mastery over mind and muscle. Each institution should have its pupils trained in the setting up exercises and movements, even if they have no arms.

Institutional Newspapers.— Within the past few years several in-

stitutions have added a printing department to their list of industries; and, as a result, the institutional newspaper has come to stay. As a public agent, it is designed to let those inside know what is going on in the outside world, and to familiarize the outside world with what is going on within the school. They are accomplishing a good work in educating and elevating public sentiment, and in disseminating information in reference to the work. Am I discouraged in my work? I turn to the pages of these publications to learn what good others are accomplishing, and this gives me renewed zeal. The institutional papers enter the homes of the parents to inform them what the school is doing for their children. No home can receive the different issues without having the ties of affection strengthened. It is like a weekly or semi-monthly letter, full of encouraging words, ennobling thoughts and precepts.

The Outlook.— Our work is growing. Our influence is extending. Closer relationship is growing between the different institutions. Men and women are becoming better qualified for the work. Public interest is on the increase. Prejudices against the work and its results are disappearing, and the future is encouraging.

But we must not forget our duty in assisting others. There are several States in which there are no reformatory institutions, where youth are thrown into prisons or convict camps. We must use our influence toward remedying these defects.

In order to ascertain the feeling in those States having no reform or industrial schools, I addressed a letter of inquiry to each Executive; and it may not be inappropriate to close with extracts from the replies.

Nevada: "I regret to say that our State contains no reformatory institution of any description, and our juvenile offenders are compelled to go to the county jails or State Prison. The question of establishing a reform school has been discussed, and I have hopes of its early consummation."

Mississippi: "I have the honor to inform you that the State of Mississippi has no reform school, industrial school, or house of refuge having for its object the care and custody of incorrigible children. The question has been occasionally, but feebly discussed. Our only prisons are the jails and the State penitentiaries; and, when juvenile offenders go beyond the power of their parents or guardian to control, the county jail is resorted to, and, when crimes of a more

serious nature are committed, they are brought before the criminal courts, and sometimes imprisoned in the penitentiary for crimes commensurate with the offence."

North Carolina: "There is no such institution as you speak of; but the subject is being agitated, and at some future day a reform school will be established." Through a private letter received from a personal acquaintance I am informed that there are two hundred boys in the penitentiary of this State who should be in a reform school.

Wyoming: "This State has no school or reformatory for juvenile delinquents, and does not anticipate establishing one at present. The number of such delinquents here is very small, and they are cared for in institutions of this kind in the State of Colorado."

Montana: "Acting on my suggestion, the legislature established and located a reform school at Miles City. The building is now in the course of erection. I am sorry to say that juvenile criminals have been, when convicted, confined with older criminals in our State penitentiary. I am very much interested in this subject."

Georgia: "It is my intention to commend to the next session of our General Assembly the establishment of a reformatory, house of refuge, or industrial school for this State."

South Carolina: "Nothing has been done in the line of reformatories in this State. All classes and ages are sent to the penitentiary. There is no agitation of the subject."

Arkansas: "We have no laws in relation to juvenile criminals other than those that relate to all criminals. A reformatory school has been recommended by several governors, but without avail."

Florida: "Our State has no reform school, industrial school, or house of refuge for criminals under the age of eighteen. We have no State penitentiary, but all our convicts are leased to the highest bidder every two years."

Idaho: "We have no reformatory for juveniles in this State. We do not feel the need of such an institution. Real want has never been known in the State. Consequently, the needs of the people have not driven them to crime. We have a rollicking element of the cow-boy pattern, some of whom get into shooting scrapes, and even at times ride off the wrong horse; but these men, reckless as they are, as a rule discourage wrong-doing in boys. If we had an institution for the correction of hardened youths in this State, I doubt whether it would have a single occupant at the present time."

WOMAN'S INFLUENCE IN JUVENILE REFORMATORIES.

BY MRS. LUCY M. SICKELS,

SUPERINTENDENT STATE INDUSTRIAL HOME FOR GIRLS, MICHIGAN.

It is a Hindu tradition that the world rests on the back of a giant tortoise, the creature that carries its house with it. In a truer sense than the Hindu knew, the world rests upon its mothers. The nation and the church are based upon the tortoise-like keeper of her own home.

A reformatory without a woman is like a "home without a mother," — a place of desolation. In reformatory work woman is the good mother. The pulse of the school or home throbs in her breast. She is the one to whom all look for comfort and relief. The smallest one with a cut finger comes to her to bandage it: the one about to go out into the world comes to her for comfort when all other earthly friends fail.

Pestalozzi said: "The mother is qualified, and qualified by the Creator himself, to become the principal agent in the development of a child. Maternal love is the first great agent in all education." He might also have said maternal love is the first agent in all reformation. Many a hardened criminal has taken his first step in the right direction from hearing a song or prayer which his mother had taught him long years before, when he was a child. When the first Napoleon was asked, What is the greatest need of France? he answered, Mothers; and he voiced the imperative need of all ages, of every nation, and none more than our own.

In the case of children under public care it seems peculiarly fitting that motherly instincts should be permitted to reach the many unfortunate ones. The knowledge that woman has of domestic affairs, and her experience in care of the sick, give special value to her services in institutions for juveniles. Few men can enter into the lives of children and young people, and win their confidence as can a woman.

There are certain lines of work which she can conduct with more propriety than man, being able to exchange confidences with those of her own sex, whose troubles might otherwise go unrevealed. A woman seems also to have a quicker sympathy, more patience, a readier mind to work out problems of ways and means, and to adjust conditions apparently irreconcilable in defter ways.

To her has been given a sleight of hand in smoothing away difficulties denied to man. Caring for home and children is a woman's work. Here she reigns supreme; and in the exercise of her power she may, like Maria Theresa, of Austria, or Isabel, of Aragon, sway a nation's destiny. Who can better smooth the pillow and soothe the anguish of a child than a woman, whose tenderness, softness of touch, and lightness of step so well fit her for the sick-room?

The majority of delinquent children have not been "brought up, but dragged up," as Charles Lamb said. They have never known a true home or parental love and care. Their parents are generally drunken or dissolute: many of them are in our prisons and workhouses. What delinquent girls need especially is to be taught womanliness by example. They must be taught to keep house, and to make home happy; and it has been proven over and over again that we learn most quickly and easily by object-teaching. And in institutions this must be taught by women.

Lincoln, Emerson, Henry Clay, Wordsworth, Sir Walter Scott, John Newton, and a host of others were proud to own that it was the influence of their mothers that made them what they were. At the inauguration of James A. Garfield as President of the United States, after he had taken the oath of office he turned and kissed his mother as an open confession of what he owed to her. The measure of a man's love for a good woman is the measure of his own nobility of soul. Is not, then, woman's influence an element to be desired in reformatory work?

Shall we, then, give our own children this influence, this mother love, and then shut up the poor delinquent children without it?

What are our free kindergartens but model reformatories? Whose influence do you find here but woman's? She it is who goes out into the alleys and gutters, gathers the poor little street waifs, washes, dresses, feeds, and trains them. The kindergarten is the grandest reformatory in the world. Plant a free kindergarten at every mile-stone, and you will soon reform and revolutionize the world.

One hundred and fifty years ago the little Swiss village of Bonnal was the home of poor, down-trodden peasants, oppressed by the bailiff and beer-house keepers, who kicked and maltreated their wives, and whose hungry children stole raw potatoes, and hid to eat them.

Amid all this wretchedness and oppression lived one good woman, Gertrude, who taught her children to pray, read, write, spin, knit, and sew. She taught them that true politeness springs from the heart; and she soon opened her doors, and took the neighbors' children in, and taught them as she taught her own. This, then, in time became a reformatory of a high order; for the moral tone of the village was completely changed, and Bonnal became the thriftiest hamlet in all Switzerland. What Gertrude did for Bonnal can be done for the waifs in our land.

We must, however, exercise judicious care in the selection of women for this work. We must seek those who possess qualifications which we most desire in ourselves. It is first necessary that women in reformatories should have love for the work of reclaiming the children and sending them back into the world, ready to face trial and temptation, and fight the battles of life bravely and honestly. Sympathy must be one of the chief virtues, for sympathy binds us together. Cheerfulness is another, for it has the effect of sunshine on the landscape. Without cheerfulness no one can attain any of the ends desired in a reformatory. Cheerfulness also implies patience, which one must have in abundance; for the children under our care are not capable of great things.

A woman fitted for reformatory work must be quick to think and act. Self-possesssion insures tact, without which she will be helpless in her work. She must have enthusiasm, that quality which will make her enter into a subject and identify herself with it. Such a woman carries conviction with her in her manner. She must be a disciplinarian,— not in the narrow sense of the word, but one who disciplines with a view to order, cleanliness, and morality.

We then have a true Christian woman full of sympathy and love for the helpless and degraded, cheerful, patient, kind, self-possessed, enthusiastic, quick to perceive, neat, orderly, and a good disciplinarian. It is difficult to find women who have all these qualities, yet only these should undertake the responsible task of moulding and changing character.

Had you a favorite rose-bed or garden of choice plants, you would be very careful to select your gardeners who should prune, trim, weed, and train your plants. Yet here we have human plants from God's hand. Who shall be the gardeners? With what care should they be selected, and with what wisdom should they trim and train the plants? The roses fade in autumn, but these children are flowers of eternity.

Then let us give to these children mothers from the day of entering the home or school, when they are met at the door with a friendly word and smile, until the day when they turn their steps out into the world, and are sent forth with a "God help you and keep you."

Pestalozzi gave to Gertrude all honor for his success. He said, "It was she who originated the improved system of education." He pointed to her as a pattern of high moral rectitude, endowed with remarkable clear-sightedness and executive ability. Furthermore, after adopting her principles in his work, he declares "that the co-operation of a mother's heart was essential to insure success." He also said of woman, "She is the born educator of our race."

There are many Gertrudes in our land to-day, scattered from San Francisco's Golden Gate to the rocky coasts of Maine. They are in the kindergartens, charitable schools, industrial homes, reform schools, as matrons in police stations, devoting their time, strength, energy, and sympathy to raising the fallen and helping the weak. They are not enlisted as mere militia who do active work at stated times, but soldiers of the regular army, whose uniform is ever on, whose arms are always in their hands, whose service means continual activity, whose profession is war in the glorious cause of uplifting poor delinquent children, and sending them back to the world good, loyal, American citizens.

IX.

The Feeble-minded and Epileptics.

THE EDUCATION AND CUSTODY OF THE IMBECILE.

BY ALICE J. MOTT, FARIBAULT, MINN.

Natural causes, preventives, and cures for idiocy were not sought until well on in the present century. It is only latterly that any mental aberration or failure has been considered as a physical fact. Through many centuries idiocy was counted as a peculiar brand of favor or of shame. Even to this day, in India, the simple are regarded as sacred, under the protection of heaven. They have held this position also among the Scotch. In most countries they were classed with the brutes.

The first humane notice received by imbeciles was of a somewhat peculiar nature: it was the recognition of their shortcomings with amusement.

The custom, which originated among the Romans, of harboring the fool in wealthy homes for his mountebank services was not the inhuman practice it has since been represented. It is more humane to laugh at the fool than to ignore him: it is more humane than to maltreat him.

The first intelligent recognition of any imperfection is accompanied by amusement, later this becomes painful and the cause pathetic, then both insufferable. A little variety and divergence from a type are always pleasing. As we grow in refinement, a slighter and slighter deflection of the real from the ideal serves for piquancy, and a less divergence from the type seems a monstrosity. A person with the keenest imaginable sense of humor would be in constant misery. But, fortunately for us, our senses are blunted. The evils

which are utterly beyond our reach are unappreciated. And, as for the evils which we may reach, our first inkling of their presence is of something odd and laughable. The soul among the herd which first appreciates the humor of a situation is the soul which, with advancing education, shall first appreciate its pitiableness. Amusement is only an antechamber to pity and sacrifice. Of all the friends of the defective, deliver him from the friend who cannot perceive the ludicrous side of his defect. This seems to me a merciful dispensation to help us through with earth. It is a compounding with imperfection which is only adapted to an imperfect existence.

Dr. Seguin, "the apostle of the idiot," opened his first school for the idiots of the Hospice des Incurables in 1837: and this was positively the first scientific attempt made to develop the idiotic mind.

Heretofore imbeciles had roamed at large, the prey to destitution, misery, and any form of abuse which the unscrupulous and cruel might put upon them. Or, where the necessity for their protection was recognized, they were admitted into institutions for other classes of unfortunates.

The majority of imbeciles for whom any provision was made were housed in almshouses or lunatic asylums. The latter arrangement was recognized by the thoughtful as inhuman and pernicious. Normal idiots have absolutely nothing in common with the insane. The entire absence of illusion from amentia renders it less congenial with dementia than is the ordinary mind, capable of imagination and of fancy. Idiots are universally timid and shrinking. Any show of force overawes them. They yield implicit obedience to the imperative whims of a baby. Their terror in the presence of the maniac's fury is inconceivable. Many instances were on record of the death, from sheer fright, of weak and harmless imbeciles confined with lunatics. These sufferings were deplored, yet no better provision seemed possible; and, moreover, the idiot life was considered absolutely valueless and hopeless.

The few attempts which had been made to improve their mental conditions had been almost utterly unsuccessful. The pious Spanish monks of the seventeenth century and various instructors of the deaf — Pereire, Sicard, Itard, and Dr. Gallaudet — had given up the task as hopeless. It was not lack of humanity, but lack of hope, which drove the idiot into outer darkness, when other defectives were welcomed to the hearth of civilization.

But within a few years after Seguin published the results of his labors schools were established in America, in England, in Italy, in Germany, and in Scandinavia; and, although it is now estimated that less than three per cent. of the idiots of Christendom are properly protected, nevertheless this latest charity has already extended far.

England maintains eight schools and one asylum; Scotland, three schools; Ireland, one; The Netherlands, one; Austria, one; Switzerland, four; Denmark, three; and Russia, two. These are all private institutions, maintained by subscription or tuition or by communal bounty.

Canada and New South Wales have State institutions; France, one private institution and three State; Germany, thirty private institutions, of which three are subsidized by the State; Norway, three State schools (an obligatory law for the education of imbeciles will go into effect in Norway as soon as the quota of six schools can be completed); Sweden, twelve schools supported by the State, and confided entirely to the care of women, also a few workshops; Finland, a State school organized by the clergy. Belgium alone still houses her idiots in lunatic asylums. The United States of America maintain thirteen public and two large private institutions, besides small private schools.

This sudden growth of asylums for the idiotic, all of which are more or less educational in nature, was due to the propagation of new theories in regard to idiocy.

Before the fifth decade of this century all attempts to teach imbeciles had been psychological in nature, but present opinion holds that imbeciles are incapable of being taught in the ordinary schools, — not because they are unamenable to education, but because they are not amenable to ordinary methods of education. The old theory might have been rendered that a man could not outgrow the shape of his head. Seguin's grand discovery was that idiocy is a physical fact rather than a psychological one; that in nine hundred and ninety-nine cases out of a thousand the idiot is not an anomalous, but an undeveloped human being; that arrested development, not incapacity for development, separates him from his kind; and that not the brain substance, but the nervous system, is defective. He substituted the physiological for the psychological treatment, adopting Descartes's theory,— that, "if ever this world is to be regenerated, it will be by means of medical science."

Lunacy is a brain disease; idiocy, no more so than babyhood. The innate tendency of dementia is to grow worse, and of idiocy to improve, however slowly, just as it is the natural tendency of the second childhood to lose, and of the first childhood to gain, in mental force. Dementia and idiocy may at certain stages be mistaken for each other, but are perfectly distinguishable to prolonged attention. They have invariable characteristics, with important bearings upon their care and treatment. It is a highly significant fact that lunacy is characterized by gloom and unhappiness, and idiocy by happiness and contentment. There is a hopeless and a degenerative idiocy caused by epilepsy, which, like senile imbecility, or the imbecility incident to brain softening, differs from ordinary imbecility in being a progressive rather than a temperamental disease. Even epilepsy is sometimes, though rarely, cured. Epileptics stand in even more necessity of humane and close custody than other imbeciles, but their needs are entirely different; and special physicians dwell upon the great importance of separating the custodial classes of idiots from educable imbeciles.

Whereas observers before Seguin had assumed that the idiot moves, hears, sees, feels, tastes, and smells imperfectly, because he does not know enough to move, hear, see, feel, smell, and taste, the physiologist maintains that the mental processes of the idiot are slow, sluggish, undeveloped, because his sense-impressions are imperfect; in other words, that idiocy is a nervous disease, and is to be met, prevented, even cured by treatment of the nervous system. Henceforward education took the form of a nerve tonic.

It had been previously asked, even as it is asked now, of what avail were extensive appliances and schemes for prolonging the life of the proverbially short-lived imbecile. It seemed then, as it seems to many now, that the kindest charity would provide comfortable quarters and satisfy distinct wants, but that gymnasia, careful diet, daily medical inspection, enforced alternation of work, recreation, and repose, constituting regular healthful habits, were uncalled for and superfluous. But it is successfully demonstrated that only such attention to bodily health affords the slightest hope of brain development; that the tottering gait, the paralytic limbs, the lethargic functions of the imbecile, are not accidents, but significant accompaniments of idiocy. Unprofessional home treatment is not more liable to be efficacious than amateur treatment of small-pox or diph-

theria: hence one of the great advantages of institution training. There are other advantages depending upon the nervous, imitative, and timid tendencies of imbecility. It has been found far easier to teach twenty imbeciles together than one alone.

Seguin, whose abounding enthusiasm and personal charms must account for a part of his success, thus sums up the results of forty years' toil: —

> Not one idiot in one thousand has been entirely refractory to treatment; not one in one hundred but has been made happy and healthy; more than thirty per cent. have been taught to conform to social and moral law, and rendered capable of order and good feeling and of working like two-thirds of a man; twenty-five per cent. come nearer and nearer the standard of manhood till they defy the scrutiny of good judges when compared with ordinary young men and women.

The methods and the aims above set forth are before the eyes of all who undertake the care of the feeble-minded. Their education and succor go hand in hand.

The details of the physiological method are briefly: The instructor and attendant have that to do for the imbecile which nature, society, and the mother are able to do for the ordinary child. His school education begins where cradle impressions usually begin. Feeding, rubbing, exercise, bathing, dosing, precede any intellectual training. Then the separate senses are taught to accept and convey impressions, and thus the brain to perceive.

"The Training of an Idiotic Hand" and the "Training of an Idiotic Eye" show the indefatigability of a human being who has entered upon the entrancing occupation of creating another human being; for, in fact, the instructor of the feeble-minded has merely the raw material of humanity at his hand, waiting to be shaped. For him to shape it, to create sensations, perceptions, apperceptions, conceptions, reflections, wants, emotions, aspirations, is possible if, as a teacher of imbeciles has stipulated, "he be generous, and willing to try a thousand and one times." Without his shaping touch he knows it will be an undeveloped mass forever. Many fastidious, broad-minded, highly educated beings are thus generous, and bend themselves to the task which an outsider finds so repulsive, with a fascination beside which the gross intoxication of gambling is monotony.

Sometimes the mass has positively no sense of sight or of hearing, not from organic blindness or deafness, but from a general nervous flaccidity producing "idiotic blindness and deafness," like the blindness and deafness of very young babies.

These senses are to be created, and are known to have been created and made almost normal by judicious repetition of distinct impressions after perfect rest; as, for example, the child is placed in a totally dark room, and vivid flashes of light, introduced at intervals, have finally produced a sensation. Loud sounds after perfect stillness finally result in hearing.

The weak and wavering will of the idiot must be made to feel the influence of a stronger will; and the latter may at last be withdrawn, leaving the imbecile to stand alone as a personality. So soon as possible pleasurable emotion must supersede mere sensation as an educator, and the idea of duty must supersede mere pleasure in its turn.

Sometimes the process by which an enthusiastic teacher extends the influence of his will to the subject almost resembles hypnotism in its process and results.

When a certain stage of development is reached, Spencerian heroic tactics may be adopted. A slowly rolling body may be directed toward the imbecile; and, when it has pushed him over a few hundred times, he takes measures to avoid collision. The keen delight which the first appreciable sensations produce in the phlegmatic idiot is astonishing. Imbeciles after once experiencing the joys of having a tooth extracted will often beg in heart-rending accents for a renewal of the pleasure.

So soon as possible, and with the best results, the performance of regular tasks succeeds the enforced exercise of the gymnasium. There is almost no form of handiwork in which the average imbecile may not excel under intelligent direction. His patient, plodding, affectionate toil is almost the only counterpart which the New World can offer to that Eastern craft which produces in a lifetime a few yards of texture or of metal whose significant beauty a nation of ambitious artists and manufacturers cannot equal.

Although robust health is rare among idiots, their energies may be readily utilized, and this not to their overtaxing, but to their own great benefit.

There is no form of industry which so naturally develops the

latent capacities of the idiot as the various occupations of a farm. Certain Spanish monks founded an asylum for lunatics and imbeciles several centuries ago. Their simple verdict was that they could cure every one but noblemen, because all but this class could be set to digging in the earth.

The first ear of corn raised by a low-grade idiot at the Minnesota school was an awakening in him of conscious serviceable humanity. He kept it all the following winter in a secret nook, to which he conducted his chosen friends with infinite caution. At the triumphal unveiling of his treasure he would exclaim, with such tears as might have dimmed the eyes of Michel Angelo, "I raised that!"

A few are sometimes dismissed from the protection of the school, so far improved as to be enabled to lead self-supporting lives outside. Many others might be so dismissed if trustworthy and judicious guardians would volunteer to pilot them on their way. But most imbeciles are happy and useful only as life-long inmates of an institution. Even in the best home, the means of developing and applying their energies are wanting or obtained at great expense; and nineteen-twentieths of these unfortunate beings never saw a good home; many are despised and ill-treated in their own family circles. Nearly all are neglected and uncared for. The best State institutions adopt from the start the continual care of their charges to end only with death.

The causes, the preventives, and the deliverance from idiocy, if studied with that end in view, would help to solve the problem as to whether it is expedient for the State to educate and foster the imbecile at the public charge, or whether it be advisable for the imbecile to be vicariously cherished at all, and of how much value to all concerned is their protection from suffering, their rescue from destruction, and their possible salvation from mental darkness. The course is recommended by those interested in its promotion upon three grounds: first, the welfare of the subject; second, the relief of the afflicted home; and, third, the benefit accruing to society.

The benefits which accrue to the imbecile from the safe retreat, the quiet pleasures, the healthful regularity, the light and pleasant occupation, and the congenial companionship of institution life, stand without a moment's question. The substitution of this home security for outcast wandering is the motive that appeals most strongly to philanthropy in forwarding such public charities.

There is something very affecting to the benevolent in the eternal childhood of the imbecile,— his transparent cunning, his impotent gust of temper, his simple trust which makes him the readiest of dupes, his happy-go-lucky gayety, his affection, his docility, his solemn sense of responsibility.

Like the gentle Donatello, the imbecile always takes the will for the deed, and generously overlooks all faults of achievement. Let the most low-browed of villains assure the simpleton that he is a good and agreeable man, and he will be embraced accordingly. The mere effort to amuse an imbecile brings success. The information that you intend to be witty will throw him into such a receptive attitude that he will roar with laughter over the Shorter Catechism. The assurance that a lion is a lamb will quiet all apprehensions in regard to the beast's proximity. The idiot will sometimes good-naturedly forego the experiences of sea-sickness to gratify the whims of his associates: forbidden to give way to nausea, he has been known to digest his food forthwith.

But, if this appeal is strongest with philanthropists, the argument most likely to impress the legislator, and most commonly appealed to, is the relief which such institutions bring to the home.

The presence of an imbecile in the normal home is represented as subversive of all healthful home life, an incubus upon the unhappy mother, and a blight upon family affection. It is very true that such a burden is often fearful to endure, that the worthless life many times outlasts the worthier careers which are sacrificed to its nurture; but even here the chief argument lies in the superior efficacy of asylum life, and in the prospect that the home shelter can be only temporary, and may be withdrawn when most needed.

As it is cheaper, healthier, more civilized, and more agreeable to establish sewers, patrols, and fire service at the public charge than as private enterprises, so may society be drained of its unhealthy members, and its offscourings be better dealt with upon the co-operative plan.

But, since societies, like individuals, must consider first self-preservation and self-advancement, the most important question, and one to which society has a right and a duty to find an answer, is, Does society itself receive any benefit from its generosity to an abnormal, unwholesome, and imperfect class? It may be more blessed to give than to receive; but is it more expedient? And how far should the giving exceed the receiving?

Statistics show an enormous increase of imbecility with increased attention to its needs. Is charity increasing the incubus, and is prolongation of idiot contentment a few short years worth the price which is paid therefor?

It seems quite evident to a closer attention that the apparent increase of idiocy arises from quite other sources than the fostering care of institutions. The swelling flood of immigration has brought to our shores a different population from the sturdy Dutch and English stock which predominated many years ago. Our foreign-born inhabitants, and those of foreign parentage, are 34 per cent. of the whole population; but they furnish over 50 per cent. of our defectives, and statistics, though still far from perfect, are increasing in accuracy. Finally, the definition of the term "imbecile" is widening every day.

Every profession has its hobby; and the unmistakable hobby of the philanthropist, who finds himself engaged in the education of the feeble-minded, is to extend the term of idiot to more and more of his fellow-men. Not alone Edward Bellamy, but all the more advanced friends of the idiot, find the criminal an object rather of pity than of hatred; rather a subject for the hospital than for the dungeon, to be treated rather as an undeveloped child than as a fallen angel. A school for imbeciles, it is averred, is a safer and a more hopeful retreat than the juvenile reformatory, and would include, say these hobby-riders, most of the applicants for the latter.

Dr. Kerlin maintains that the tramps who deform our highways are below the mental stature of manhood. By investigation 90 per cent. of the "patients" in the Elmira Reformatory are discovered to have malformed heads.

"The defect of the imbecile may be only lack of power to form judgments of values, or of social proprieties, or of moral technicalities, or of risks of conduct, or of the wickedness existing outside of asylums." There is a distinct form of idiocy designated as moral idiocy, which may exist in combination with or apart from other phases. The Jukes were imbeciles, and would not now be allowed to propagate.

This view of the case is of course not generally accepted, but it has been accepted far enough to swell the estimated per cent. of idiocy to-day as compared with that of yesterday. Other causes yet

undiscovered may be at work to extend the disease upon which idiocy feeds; but the fear that the public care of the imbecile can increase the number of imbeciles is wholly and absurdly unfounded. Not encouragement, but prevention, is the aim and tendency of such care. "Endemic and accidental" causes of idiocy are insignificant compared with "parental and hereditary" causes. The complete stamping out of hereditary idiocy, which is the not overweening hope of the specialist, would tremendously reduce the list of idiots, and only by a complete system of life custody of all such defectives can this be effected. The close surveillance of immigration, the widening inclusion of the term "imbecile," and paternalism, strict, watchful, and entire, of the State over all such as the term includes, warrants the expectation that imbecility will soon be a lessening rather than an increasing burden to society.

The first efforts to establish an asylum for imbeciles in Connecticut disclosed the fact that a few years before a certain town burdened with the care of an imbecile girl hired an idiot of another town to marry her. The consequence was the dependence of both paupers with a family of idiot children upon the support of the almshouse.

The benefits to society of replacing a wholly unproductive by a partially productive class is certainly something to be counted. The removal of an irresponsible and a dangerous class from the floating population is still more to be considered as a boon to society. The advantage which must accrue from the close limiting and extensive reduction of this class is greatest of all, and sufficient to warrant far greater expenditure of public funds than has ever been demanded.

An aspect of the subject often referred to, yet never seriously discussed, may or may not deserve serious discussion: that is the retroactive value of public benevolence. This result of charitable action has grown somewhat out of favor with moralists, and it is doubtful if any elevating influence ever resulted from a deed which held such elevation for its final cause. Mallock's Sentimentalist who stood for "hours upon the Bridge of Sighs, hoping to see some poor unfortunate cast herself into the water," by making benevolent emotions his end had missed them altogether; yet the economist may legitimately consider motives and factors in public action which could not enter into private consideration, because the public is not a determinate *self*. Although it is subversive of kindly sentiments

in the individual to direct one's individual attention to obtaining such emotions, it is perfectly proper for the legislator to direct his attention to the altruistic education of the rising generation.

It is a popular belief that charity never recedes from ground once occupied, and that it is impossible for one generation to undo the good work of the past or to feel a diminished responsibility for needs once pointed out. This is obviously too optimistic a view. Whole people do recede in charitable efforts and do throw off responsibilities once felt as duties, and they may do this from negligence or from motives of expediency. But the surest warrant for the ultimate perfectibility of the race is the fact that it is easier for races to advance than to go backward. Any kindly responsibility assumed by one generation is likely to extend the altruistic feelings of the next. Hence it may not be unimportant to note the particular reflex action of the care of the feeble-minded.

I am at a loss to account for the particular phase of character which such care develops in the care-taker, but it is a phase which must be noticed as the almost invariable result of such responsibility. No one at home among educators of the feeble-minded will deny that they include characters most nearly approaching the ideal of human perfection which the nineteenth century can show. The very spirit of divinity seems breathed into them. And the cases are not of scattered individuals. The peculiar loveliness of a few characters might explain their choice of work rather than be explained by the work. The ennobling influence seems inseparable from the work, and to affect with almost equal force those for whom circumstances rather than deliberation have created the responsibility.

I daily meet an imbecile child who was born of an *insane* mother, who frantically declares the child is not hers, and a rough, ignorant, unpromising father. The clumsy, hard-working man has constituted himself the tender nurse, playfellow, and attendant of the child. Gentle tones are developed in that harsh voice which no living mortal ever heard before. Patient, long-suffering, — "hoping all things, enduring all things," — he leads the repulsive creature about all day and tends it all night, never allowing it from his sight. Tears, of which he was thought incapable, are very near the surface whenever the child is mentioned.

The elevation is of course proportional to the natural gifts. In some cases it may degenerate into sentimentality, but it is not sen-

timentality which endures and works and waits for years without personal reward. That is heroism, whatever be its object.

Sentiment is inseparable from such work as this; that is, quickened feeling, tenderness, patience, self-forgetfulness. These characteristics, as they develop in the individual who devotes himself to the care of the witless, must develop, though slowly, in the national temper of a State which assumes maternal care of helpless, irresponsible "innocents."

MANUAL TRAINING FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

(AN ADDRESS GIVEN IN CONNECTION WITH AN EXHIBIT OF HANDIWORK FROM INSTITUTIONS FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED.)

BY ISABEL C. BARROWS.

The world has been long in transmuting the legendary curse pronounced on labor into the real blessing that it is. Work is no curse: it is only the conditions that frequently surround it that make it anything but a boon to humanity. Too much pleasure is mischievous to the soul; too much idleness is the fomenter of troubles innumerable. So too much work, or work under wrong conditions and improper circumstances, ceases to be a blessing to humanity. Yet work in itself is necessary for developing the best that is in every man. Without physical exertion of some kind the muscular part of the body is undeveloped; without mental work the brain will lie idle and useless; and without sufficient exercise the affectional and spiritual nature will dwindle and pine.

What is true of humanity in general is true of any particular department of mankind, though individuals may evince a different capacity for training in any one direction. But, the more needy by nature, the more necessary is that wise instruction that shall develop latent possibilities.

If the child dowered by birth with every faculty necessary to make

of him a complete man, physically, mentally, affectionally, and spiritually, needs an all-round development, an all-round education, so that hands, eyes, ears, and feet shall be trained as well as the powers of mind and heart, still more do those who are lacking in the essentials that go toward making up a perfect human being need a symmetrical and careful training in keeping with their capacities. How far they are failing to receive it in the present we may easily learn; but how much worse was their condition in the past, before the spirit of humanitarianism was developed, we can only surmise. It is instinctive with us to shrink from the imperfect. The imperfect human being develops a shrinking in all who see him, save in the ever-loyal mother-heart, which often has the very tenderest feeling evoked for her most imperfect child. In consonance with this instinctive feeling, not from any inhuman or cruel reason, the little ones of the family who have proved imbecile, idiotic, or malformed in any way, have been kept out of sight, hidden away in lofts and cellars, allowed to sleep in barns and stables, or quietly slipped away to almshouses and poor-farms to be held at public charge. Indeed, in the largest part of our country this is still true. Who, in driving through quiet parts of the land, has not again and again seen the poor, half-clad imbecile sunning himself on a bank, or cowering in an open shed, listless, helpless, grinning at the stranger whose coming in that region is so infrequent that the poor unfortunate is allowed to show himself because there is little fear of shocking any passer-by?

In city homes, too, one learns occasionally of that terrible living skeleton whose presence is a constant damper, but of whose existence one only hears after, perhaps, years of acquaintance with the family, so carefully has the shocking object been shielded from the public gaze.

But, if a casual glimpse of these sad abnormalities is so shocking, what a horror has one felt in visiting almshouses, where, by the half-dozen, these unhappy creatures were exposed to the glare of day! Nothing is more repulsive than such a group of half-naked, filthy, helpless, useless human beings, with apparently most that goes to make humanity left out of their composition. It is enough to make one heart-sick and brain-sick, any attempt to better their condition appears to be so utterly hopeless. It would seem kinder to them, and to those about them, to give them an opiate that should send

them into that sleep that knows no waking, if the moral law would allow such a wholesale destruction of life. But the law, "Thou shalt not kill," does not define the intellectual capacity of the possible victim. There is, then, but one humane thing to do; and that is to make these unfinished lives happy, if possible. To perfect them is out of the question. To make normal again the abnormal brain is beyond the power of any earthly creator. Happily unconscious of their own deepest needs, by equal good fortune endowed, as a rule, with an affectionate disposition, they are as capable of being made content and happy within their scope as the kittens that frisk about our firesides. This, at least, we can do for them in institutions, where they should find a perpetual home. How best can this be done?

Let us suppose, then, that, with this idea of creating a happier condition of things, we have taken an imbecile child from a home where he has had no sort of training, where he has been only a shame and a disgrace to the family, whispered about in all the country neighborhood, and growing to be an increasing care and expense. He may have been wholly untaught, and yet be capable of a certain degree of improvement. If he has not learned to dress himself even, of course the beginning of education will be to learn self-help, to put on and fasten his own clothes, to tie his own shoes. When he has learned that, he is not only fitted to help himself, but to help others, for in almost any institution the grading is such that there is always some one below him who needs a helping hand; and the poor imbecile's triumphant happiness at conquering his own buttons becomes sometimes almost ecstatic when he succeeds in guiding the wavering buttons of his neighbor's jacket into safe button-hole harbors.

In this early and simple stage of educational progress we have a little epitome of what the manual training of the imbecile should be, — self-help, the help of others, and resulting happiness.

That happiness is one result of a capacity for usefulness is a truism, when we think of our own lives. It is equally true of those with fewer faculties. Even the boys and girls who are capable of nothing more complicated than pushing a polishing weight over a maple floor are far happier than when left to huddle in a corner, idle and useless. Let me gather at random a sentence here and a sentence there from the words of those who have had practical experience

in these matters. The report of the Massachusetts School for Feeble-minded says, "Even excavating and road-making make the boys very content and happy." Dr. Fernald adds in his report, "The girls are always proud of their work, and are distinctly happier and better as a result of being occupied, and of being of some use in the world."

Dr. Dunlap, of New Jersey, says that with the imbecile "to be busy is to be happy: to be deprived of work is a mark of displeasure."

And it has been proved over and over again that suitable work not only adds to the happiness of the child, and that what remnant of mind there may be is educated largely through the senses, but that it is morally improved by work. Especially does the moral imbecile need manual training for his development more than any knowledge of books. It is undoubtedly true, as Dr. G. H. Knight said in a paper read in New England last fall, "that an imbecile can be developed best when he can be made useful," meaning development in every direction; and such usefulness can come only by the training of the hands.

The Barre report defines the nature of the work required. It must be "work that is plainly useful. Work that is not only a means to an end, but is both means and end in one; work that trains hand and eye and heart, and develops character at the same time that it performs a manifest duty,—*that* we consider manual training in the broadest and highest sense."

Having this aim constantly in view, what do we find are the occupations provided for their ill-shaped, feeble hands? There are many that cannot be represented in any portable exhibit, such as floor-polishing, picking up sticks, scrubbing steps, gardening, farming, and domestic work of various kinds, which are extremely valuable in themselves, and to be found in most institutions. Some of these are not only educative, but are fairly remunerative. Gardening is one of the best employments, equally good for boys and girls. It teaches self-reliance. It inculcates perseverance, and it incites hope and brightens the dull imagination. Through this branch of work, under a wise and devout teacher, the dormant religious feelings can also be roused to some comprehension of the God in nature through watching his processes in the unfolding of leaf and flower and fruit.

In farming, the work of older boys can be turned to good account. In Massachusetts twenty-four of the boys employed on the farm earn their own support entirely, and probably the same is true of a good proportion of boys on farms in other State institutions.

In the kitchen children taken from barred rooms in their own homes, where they have been treated like animals, are trained to be tidy and useful in their small way, while those with more capacity do so much of the general work that hired help is rare. Thus in New Jersey one paid domestic, the cook, bakes for ninety people, the inmates doing all the rest. In Illinois the laundry employs twenty-five, and the farm forty, who, in great measure, earn their own cost of keeping. In New York for six hundred and fifty persons there is but one paid employee, in the bakery,—the baker; and in the laundry, doing the washing for this multitude, but five.

So in the needlework department in different institutions the inmates make and mend their own garments, keep the stockings darned, and hem bed and table linen. Boys, as well as girls, find occupation here. In one institution alone last year the girls made 1,625 articles, while the boys made 1,875 with their needles and machines.

All of this work is useful, even though it may take eight hours to make one small pillow-case, like the one in the exhibit. The idea of giving exercise that has no meaning is going by. There is little of it left among the wide-awake superintendents of schools for the feeble-minded. To refer again to that excellent employment, the polishing of hard-wood floors, there may seem to the poor child pushing the carpeted weight over the smooth surface nothing of interest or of purpose in the work. His mind may be incapable of perceiving what his hands can do. But even this simplest of all occupations, which can be given to any one who can walk, becomes educative as gradually the child learns to trace and follow the grain of the wood, to watch for the gloss that follows his application, and to take pleasure in the shining boards, while unconsciously he is reaping the benefit of a purer atmosphere than is ever found in wooden floors cleaned with a mop and suds.

When once the object to be secured by manual work is perceived, the first step is taken toward strengthening the will. Of course there must be incessant moral support from instructors and supervisors, for no feeble-minded child works spontaneously any more

than he plays spontaneously, in the matter of work being not altogether unlike his brighter brother; but the desire for the completion of the article undertaken helps to strengthen the purpose. And, if this purpose be for the benefit of some one besides himself, there comes in again true moral benefit. For this reason, work of this kind should always be given to the morally oblique. It has been said that to induce a moral imbecile to begin and complete an article that shall be useful to his fellows will do more toward turning his will and keeping it in the right direction than committing to memory the Ten Commandments. Certain it is that, while the ordinary imbecile should receive as much mental training as he is capable of,— and he will receive more if his hands are at the same time trained,— his hand-work will be better in proportion as his brain participates. The moral imbecile should have every moment so full of manual employment that his busy, mischievous, tortuous brain shall have no other thought than to do well the work he has in hand.

Shall manual training be productive labor, in the sense that it brings in, or saves, dollars or cents? That depends. If it be for the sake of education, then let the pounds and shillings take care of themselves, while we look after the pence. Manual training for improvable imbeciles should be educative without any ulterior thought. If, while they are being trained, they can at the same time lessen to a small extent the cost of their living, so much the better; but it is penny wise and pound foolish to try for anything but the best means of developing every stunted faculty. When they are recognized as distinctly custodial cases,— boys or girls who must never be returned to the world,— then the moment they have reached the highest training of which they are capable they may be put at productive labor, and kept there. At the same time their tastes should be followed as far as possible, for they will do far better what they *like* to do than that which is disagreeable.

Yet here comes in an element of education quite as important for the normal as for the imbecile child. The thing which must be done may be necessary and useful, but at the same time most unattractive. The maker must then be taught to find pleasure in the accuracy with which he does his work, and the nicety of finish. I hold in my hands a table-scarf made by a feeble-minded girl. The materials are simple and inexpensive, the stitch is not elaborate, yet the completed result is charming. Why? Partly because the color is quiet

and restful, but chiefly because there is not a false stitch in it. The crocheting is absolutely correct, and the insertion of the lace into the scrim is so exquisite that one can hardly distinguish the right side from the wrong.

In Norway both girls and boys learn the joiner's trade and shoemaking, and in these occupations there is ample room for good work and nice finish. Not only is this necessary for the educational effect; but, if a market value is to be put upon these products, they must have intrinsic worth.

Now, how is it with the products of these girls and boys, as seen in the exhibit which I have collected from nine States? Have they been chosen with reference to use, to education, to the development of a taste for the beautiful?

There is a large variety,— from wood-turning to shoemaking, from coarse knitting to delicate Torchon lace-making. There is plain sewing and dainty embroidery. There are tiny bead baskets — made by a little blind imbecile — and heavy rope mats. There is a bit of coarse rag-carpet,— made by a girl who is so handy with tools that she is known as "the carpenter," — and a well-made little pen-wiper fashioned by a child who is always melancholy when not employed. There is a basket made by a boy who is classified as a "high-grade imbecile," who is, after all, not so feeble-minded but that he engages other boys to punish any one who offends him, because he is too slight of stature to do it himself. There are samples of excellent darning by a boy who quarrels, and makes others as well as himself wretched, when idle, who is happy and well behaved so long as he sits over his stockings and darning basket. There is a well-made hammock which suggests the possibility of introducing seine netting, and the netting of the fine-meshed hangings which are used so much in Italy. There is a beautiful specimen of weaving which opens up a large field of possibilities in an institution populous enough to furnish suitable workers. There are table mats and edgings and tidies galore. There are also suits of clothes, aprons, towels, night-gowns, children's dresses, tyers, specimens of leather-stitching, and admirable kindergarten work. Yes, and there are so-called drawings and varieties of lace. But the most interesting thing connected with the exhibit is the bit of personal history accompanying almost each specimen, showing that, unaided, the most of these could be duplicated by the child.

To the practical mind that work appeals most quickly which shows real progress in useful employment. Some of the leather stitching, for instance, coarse, uneven, was the very first attempt of a boy who can hardly talk. He has learned to do it so well that he is now one of the best boys in the shoe-mending room. It has taken months and months of patient training; but his joy in his work, his beaming smile at a well-cobbled shoe from his own hand, must be far greater than that of the poor deformed girl who, after three months' labor of an hour a day, produced a specimen of ugliness exhibited here in the shape of a useless fancy bag. She had been four years in training in this particular line of work, and the skill with which the stitches are set show her real capacity; and, had the work been educative in *every* direction, her real happiness might have been correspondingly increased.

If we wish to give happiness to these children, we cannot be too careful in our choice of work. There may be those who think goodness and mental capacity should be what the superintendent must aim after. He does, when he aims for happiness. The happy child is not naughty. The brightest boy that ever lived never made any great mental progress in his unhappy moods.

To return, then, to the exhibit: we have here many articles, almost all of educational value, some of commercial value; but careful study shows that the educational side may be improved, and that a wider field may be opened in certain directions.

When we ask the question as to the real worth to the State to have these imbeciles gathered together and trained manually, there is not a shadow of doubt as to the immense gain to a commonwealth to have every imbecile and feeble-minded child within its borders brought under the control of wise and kind teachers and attendants; for, even were the sadly needed laws passed to-day which should as far as possible prevent the birth and reproduction of these imperfect creatures, there would still for years be the existing multitude to care for. Look at it in Tennessee, famous for its intelligence, and whose capital boasts the fair name of the Athens of the South. In Tennessee at this moment there are 3,590 imbeciles, 1,967 males, 1,623 females, according to the last census. Of these Dr. J. S. Billings, who has charge of this department, says, "22 are in the insane asylums." Where the other 3,568 are he does not know! Does the State of Tennessee know? Alas! only the unhappy families into

which they were born can tell. But there is no doubt that the aggregate cost of maintaining them, wherever they are,— if one includes the loss of time and labor entailed in homes by their presence,— would be to the community in hard dollars as much as it would cost to bring them together on a good farm in unpretentious houses, under a wise superintendent, where they could be taught some self-support in what shall be to them a *life* home. While, if we consider the saving to the State in the future by preventing the crimes, the pauperism, the immorality, that attend the lives of this class when left at large, the advantage is so clearly on the side of State custody that it seems short-sighted beyond conception for any State to neglect this silent but none the less dangerous class.

To a people so wide in their hospitality, so warm-hearted to those in trouble, it seems needless to appeal on the ground of humanity. One must rather believe that it has never been brought home to them that thirty-six hundred of wretched, unhappy creatures — think of it, a cityful! — are hidden away among these beautiful hills, whose lives might be brightened and blessed, on whose unintelligent faces the smile of happiness might be made to play. But this is to be accomplished not by a transient bit of kindness, but by a judicious training of whatever in the imbecile or feeble-minded child will respond to the best methods of education,— the training of the limp fingers, the restless eyes, the wandering purpose, the dormant affections, and the slumbering soul; and in all this training there is no one thing that has a farther-reaching influence than manual training, wisely guided. Under its beneficent aid even the semi-helpless imbecile may learn to echo the words of the Nazarene, who, though the spiritual leader of the world, did not scorn the carpenter's bench,—"My Father worketh hitherto, and I work."

PROVISION FOR EPILEPTICS.

BY WM. PRYOR LETCHWORTH, LL.D.,

COMMISSIONER OF THE NEW YORK STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

Various theories as to the cause of epilepsy have been advanced by those who have studied the subject scientifically, but none of them have stood the test of general application; and at the present time the most learned in the study of the subject frankly admit that the nature of the disease is still a mystery. Dr. Ludwig Hirt, in his noted work on "Diseases of the Nervous System," says: "The structure as well as the physiological functions of the human brain are, up to the present time, so little understood that we are far from having any sure basis upon which to lay the foundations of a cerebral pathology." He further says, "By epilepsy in the stricter sense of the term we designate a functional neurosis, the seat of which is still unknown."

Dr. Jules Christian, physician to the National Hospital at Charenton, France, says: "Nobody really doubts that epilepsy is a disease of the brain. Upon that all are agreed, but no one has been able to determine with any precision the part of the organ affected nor the nature of the lesion which produces the disease. All the researches of pathological anatomy have hitherto been at variance." After discussing different theories on the subject, beginning with that of Dr. Marshall Hall, he says, "To any one asking my opinion as to the approximate cause of epilepsy, I should simply reply, I do not know."

Though physicians differ as to the nature of epilepsy, and the wisest admit that they have not yet been able to fathom its mysteries, it is an established fact that certain medical and moral treatment will render less frequent the terrible manifestations of the disease, and in some instances prevent their recurrence. It is therefore of the greatest importance that such provision be made for this unfortunate class as seems best suited to their needs. The fact that epilepsy is not thoroughly understood, instead of discouraging re-

MAP OF THE

CRAIG COLONY ESTATE,

SONYEA, LIVINGSTON CO., N. Y.

REFERENCES.

1.—Office.
2.—Horse barn.
3.—Meeting house.
4 Main building.
5. -Sewing house.
6. Kitchen building.
7. Laundry.
8. Stock barn.
9. Ice house.
10.—Boiler house.
11. Joiner house.
12.—Broom shop.
13.—School house.
14. -Main building.
15. -Horse barn.
16. Broom shop.
17. Laundry.
18.—Sewing house.
19.—Brick house.
20.—Barn.
21. -Barn.
22.—Dwelling house.
23.—Barn.
24.—Dwelling house
25. -Barn.
26.—Public school house.
27.—Tenant house.
28. -Wagon shed.
29.—Fruit house.
30.—Poultry house.
31.—Granary.
32.—Farmer's house
33.—Stock sheds.
34. -Ice house.
35.—Dry house.
36.—Office.
37.—Engine house.
38.—Tool house.
39.—Blacksmith shop.
40. -Barn.
41. Saw mill.
42. Saw mill engine house
43.—Shed.
44. -W. N. Y. & P. depot.
45.—Shed.
46. Grain barn.
47. Cattle shed.
48. Stock Shed.
49. Elevator on Erie R. R.
50. Junction depot.
51.—Dwelling house.
52.—Barn
53. -Dwelling house.
54. -Dwelling house.
55.—Barn.
56. -Stock barn
"R," proposed reservoir.
"S," reservoir.
"T," old dam.

Total number of acres, 1671.94
About 500 acres of timber land.
About 32 acres of apple orchards
About 2 acres of peach orchards.
About 1 acre of berries.
Flouring mill 2 miles above, at Tuscarora
Flouring mill 6 miles above, at Cooperville
Flouring mill 7 miles above, at Nunda
Flouring mill 9 miles above, at Oakland
Watershed of Spring Creek above proposed dam, from 2 to 3 square miles
Total fall of Kishaqua Creek through property, 106.6 feet.

SCALE

0 500 1000 2000 3000 4000 5000 FEET

1 MILE = 5280 FEET

Spring Creek

Suggested Group Administration Building, Observation Cottages, and Hospitals

ORCHARD

PEACH ORCHARD

MORRIS ROAD

MOUNT

APPLE ORCHARD

Suggested Group for Women

Springs

Site of Suggested Group General Kitchen, Laundry and Bakery.

Suggested School Building

CANSVILLE ROAD

ERIE R. R.

KISHAQUA CREEK

search into its mysteries, argues strongly in favor of turning upon the subject the concentrated light of scientific investigation and study.

The epileptic is in one sense an outcast. In his own home his presence is distressful and disturbing; the privileges of the church and of places of amusement are denied him; it is difficult for him to find employment; and, eventually, the progress of his malady having been gradually accelerated by his unhappy environment, he finds his way into the almshouse or the insane asylum, neither of which is a suitable place for him. In the almshouse he cannot receive the care and treatment which his peculiar infirmity requires; and his presence in the insane asylum is often injurious to the insane, especially the convalescing. Moreover, a sense of the injustice of enforced confinement and association with lunatics precipitates a crisis in his own mental condition.

While it is generally admitted by those who have studied this disease with reference to the best interests of those afflicted by it and of society that care and treatment different from that provided for any other class of dependents is necessary for them, it is nevertheless true that very limited special provision has been made for epileptics in comparison with their numbers. According to returns made to the New York State Board of Charities there were 614 epileptics in the poorhouses and almshouses of the State of New York on the 30th of September, 1893. It is estimated that there are twelve thousand in the State and one hundred and twenty thousand in the United States. These numbers are based on an estimate of about two to every one thousand of the population. In Germany the number is estimated to be at least one to every one thousand of the population. A recent census taken of epileptics in the canton of Arrau, Switzerland, made the ratio 2.42 to every one thousand of the population. These estimates include epilepsy of all types. It is thought that the ratio of this class in England is not less than it is in the German States.

The principal homes for epileptics are in Germany; and most of those established within recent years were founded upon the colony plan, which is now regarded as the most advanced system of care for this class that has yet been devised. In a late report of a special committee of the Charity Organization Society of London, which was appointed to make a scientific inquiry into the public and charitable

provision for the care and training of epileptics and feeble-minded, deformed and crippled persons, we have some valuable suggestions respecting the proper provision for epileptics. The large number of eminent physicians and experienced charity workers engaged in this inquiry entitles the following conclusion reached by them to careful consideration: "For all alike, for the furtherance of self-control and for healthy enjoyment, a well-ordered home life is required. These things — school education, employment of the most suitable and varied kinds, and home life — the colony system provides. As house after house is built for the settlers, the classification becomes more and more complete for all purposes. Each house should be in its internal administration a separate unit, under the charge of a home superintendent or house father. There is thus always large scope for expansion according to actual demand. A large staff of nurses is necessary, and for these special provision must be made. Medically, if the serious nature of the disease be taken into account, the colony system, with careful medical treatment, produces the best results. For the worst cases, and to provide against the constant ailments of many of the colonists, hospital accommodation is necessary; and for the study of the disease the fullest opportunity must be given to scientific research and treatment."

Dr. Peterson,* who, while first assistant physician at the Hudson River State Hospital, had a large number of epileptics under his charge, and who has studied their needs by personal observations at Bielefeld and elsewhere, thus remarks on the kind of care necessary for this class: "There is but one kind of institution which can meet the case of those who suffer from this disease. No asylum, no large hospital, no single vast building in a great city, is appropriate for the purpose. It must be an establishment combining many unusual features. It must have schools and teachers for the education of the young epileptics. It must have offices, shops of all kinds, stores, dairy, farm, gardens, granaries; for, as they grow up, these patients should acquire trades or professions. It must have a group of small hospital and asylum buildings where such as are sick or mentally infirm may be cared for. It must have skilled physicians. It must have a church, a theatre, a gymnasium, and a bathing establishment. It must have, finally, a pathological laboratory, presided

† Dr. Frederick Peterson, attending physician to the New York Hospital for Nervous Diseases; pathologist to the New York City Insane Asylums; chief-of-clinic, Nervous Department. Vanderbilt Clinic, College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York.

over by the keenest pathologist obtainable, so that in the course of time a cause and a cure may be discovered for this terrible disease. Such a place would not be a hospital in the ordinary sense of the term. It would be a village in itself, a colony for epileptics."

It may be of interest to glance briefly at the origin of the colony system. In doing so, we must turn our attention to Europe. Some time prior to 1848 John Bost, pastor of a Protestant church at La Force, near Bordeaux in France, out of his sympathy for friendless girls set out to build a home for them adjoining his church. The members of his congregation, who were poor, aided him with the labor of their hands; and he begged means while preaching in France, England, and Switzerland to secure his object. He succeeded in opening his home in 1848; but, other classes of the unfortunate likewise appealing to his sympathies, he soon built another house for young girls who were suffering from incurable diseases, or who were feeble-minded, or who were blind or becoming so. He next put up a house for epileptic girls and, later, one for epileptic women, following with others for those who were dependent and afflicted with disease. His last house was built in 1881. The whole formed a group of families who lived as nearly as possible like families in ordinary homes. Pastor Bost believed in the efficacy of outdoor life in the country, as well as medicine, in healing certain diseases, in the advantages of working in the fields and garden, of caring for animals, and in the contemplation of the works of nature. From these homes for epileptics, which form a part of the mixed colony founded by John Bost at La Force, came the first practical suggestion of colonizing epileptics and caring for them in family groups. The method thus originated formed the basis of a system which has been followed to a greater or less extent on the continent of Europe, where provision has been made for this class.

The celebrated colony of Bielefeld in Westphalia was organized upwards of twenty-five years ago through the humane efforts of Pastor von Bodelschwingh, a Lutheran clergyman, under the auspices of the Provincial Committee of the Inner Mission in Rhineland and Westphalia. It is a private charitable institution, largely supported by receipts from private patients and voluntary subscriptions, but partially by payments from public authorities. It has among its beneficiaries eleven hundred epileptics, separately classified, who are under the gentle ministrations of the Westphalian

Brotherhood and the Westphalian Deaconesses. This colony, with its plain, unpretentious buildings distributed over thirteen hundred and fifty acres of land, its church, school, gymnasium, places for entertainment, hospital, carpenter-shop, blacksmith-shop, shoe-shop, saddlery, tailor-shop, basket weaver's establishment, iron foundry, mill, seed-assorting house, book-bindery, printing establishment, bakery, brick kiln, farm buildings for the care of all kinds of stock, cultivated fields, meadows, orchards, gardens, groves, embellished grounds, trellised vines, and attractive dwellings, has more the characteristics of home, family, and natural life than any other existing institution for epileptics. It has been so well described by Dr. Peterson, who visited it in 1886, also in the report made upon it to the Charity Organization Society of London by Miss E. Burdon Sanderson, who visited it in 1892, and in a recently published work of Julie Sutter, entitled "A Colony of Mercy," that further reference to it seems unnecessary.

There are but two or three homes for epileptics in England, and these are of quite recent origin. The Maghull Home was founded in 1889, mainly through the efforts of Dr. William Alexander and the benefactions of Mr. Cox, a wealthy resident of Liverpool. The principal building of the home is an old manor house, which is situated in the midst of neat lawns and gardens, surrounded by shaded meadows, about seven miles from the city of Liverpool. The cases admitted are chiefly those in which there is a reasonable prospect of cure or amelioration. The system of treatment includes a well-ordered home life, plain diet, careful supervision and employment. This small work, undertaken as an experiment, has been so successful that an attempt is being made to extend it on a larger scale in other parts of England.

At Godalming, in Surrey, the Countess of Meath has lately established a home for epileptic women and girls. It has a capacity for fifty patients. The work was inspired by a visit made by this estimable lady to Bielefeld, where she was deeply impressed with the wisdom and benevolence of the work conducted there by Pastor von Bodelschwingh.

There are two or three hospitals for the paralyzed and epileptic in London; but the largest and most important of these, the National Hospital, does not admit chronic cases, and the other two treat the ordinary epileptic only as an out-patient. The majority of

the charitable institutions refuse admission to epileptics; and all charity workers, whether medical or lay, have found it next to impossible to obtain employment for those who suffer from fits, with the result that the workhouse, poor-law infirmaries, and lunatic asylums become the only places where these unfortunate people can be received.

The National Society for the Employment of Epileptics is now making an energetic effort to benefit this large class of sufferers by establishing homes where eight hundred or more sane epileptics may be provided with suitable employment under proper supervision. With this aim in view the society has just purchased a farm in Buckinghamshire, near the village of Chalfont, St. Peters, and commenced improvements upon it. The plan proposed is "to provide a home for those necessitous epileptics who are able and willing to work, but for whom their friends are unable to procure employment on account of the affliction which bars their admission into ordinary fields of industry. It is intended that the cottages shall be arranged for these, and shall each accommodate, according to their size, from ten to twenty epileptics. The sexes will be separated, as will also the children from the adults. Market gardening, spade and barrow labor, cow-keeping, dairy work, and poultry farming will be the first industries, then gardening and fruit culture, and later on will follow boot-making, carpentering, book-binding, printing, and other industries; and, for the women, laundry work, sewing, cooking, and various domestic services." In this praiseworthy movement, from which much good is anticipated, some of the most prominent men and women in England are engaged.

To Ohio belongs the honor of being the first State in the Union to provide a State institution exclusively for epileptics. It was through the forcible presentation to the legislature, by the State Board of Charities, of the neglect, sufferings, and needs of this peculiar class that the Governor of the State in 1890 was authorized by the legislature to appoint a commission to select a site for an institution for their special care and medical treatment. This action, with subsequent legislation, resulted in the establishment of the Asylum for Epileptics and Epileptic Insane at Gallipolis, the corner-stone of which was laid Nov. 12, 1891. For this new departure in our country, on behalf of a much neglected class, we are largely indebted to the persistent efforts of General R. Brinkerhoff, president of the Ohio State Board of Charities.

It unfortunately happened in this case, as it frequently does in founding State institutions, that a narrow policy stood in the way of a right beginning. In order to utilize a property already belonging to the State, and formerly used for another purpose, a site was selected having an insufficiency of land. Thus the planting of an institution on the colony or village plan became, to a large degree, impracticable. The whole estate comprises only a hundred and five acres. The buildings form a single group, and, like many other of our State institutions, are designed more to create an imposing effect than to attain the naturalness and diversity of home or family life. The buildings are on the pavilion or cottage plan, in the midst of which stands the administration building. Five cottages have been completed, with accommodation for two hundred and fifty men; and it is expected that four more will be ready this summer, for the accommodation of two hundred women. The plan embraces twelve cottages for fifty patients each. Those erected are of gray sandstone, fire-proof, two stories high, and built at a cost of $15,000 each. In the further erection of cottages it has been decided to place them at a greater distance from the main group, in order to conform more nearly to the colony system. The aim is to secure the means of classification for those differently affected,— hospital treatment for those requiring it, and education and useful employment for those who may be benefited thereby.

In Massachusetts there was opened in 1882 the Hospital Cottages for Children at Baldwinsville. The institution was first organized as a private charity, but is now governed by five trustees appointed by the governor, and fourteen appointed by the corporation. It has been liberally aided by the State. Children under fourteen years of age are admitted who are suffering from epileptic or epileptiform seizures; children suffering from nervous disorders, not feeble-minded; children with deformities, diseases of the joints, and infantile paralysis; also those needing surgical operations and fitting supports. On Sept. 30, 1893, the hospital contained one hundred and three children. The whole number treated during the fifteen previous months was one hundred and seventy, about two-thirds of whom were epileptics.

In 1892 the Governor of Massachusetts sent to the legislature a message respecting the making of State provision for epileptics, upon which he recommended early and favorable action. His message

was accompanied by a report made to him by a committee of experts of the Massachusetts Medical Society, advocating the establishment of an institution in the form of cottage hospitals for epileptics. This report the governor had previously submitted to the State Board of Lunacy and Charity, which had approved it. The legislature gave the subject some consideration, but referred it to the next General Court. No action was taken during the session of 1893. The Board of Lunacy and Charity, in alluding to this subject in their report dated January, 1894, use the following language: "The matter is one that demands prompt attention. The number of these unfortunates is constantly increasing, and, while almost every other class of the sick, the poor, and the afflicted are provided for, no special arrangement is made for adult epileptics; and their only refuge seems to be the insane hospital, in whose crowded wards they are wholly out of place, or the town almshouse, where their only prospect is increased suffering and gradual decay."

In Pennsylvania, at the Training School for Feeble-minded at Elwyn, two buildings, one for boys and the other for girls, are now set apart for epileptic children.

A hospital for the treatment of sane epileptics has just been organized upon a limited scale in Philadelphia in connection with St. Clement Church parish. The building occupied was formerly used and known as St. Clement's Hospital.

The Lunacy Committee of the Board of Public Charities of Pennsylvania, in their report for 1893, state that 575 epileptics are detained under the lunacy law in the various institutions for the insane in that State. The committee make a strong plea for a State institution for the exclusive accommodation, care, and treatment, upon an industrial basis, for this class, the wretched condition of the majority of which, it is asserted, demands relief from the legislature.

Through the instrumentality of Dr. A. E. Osborne, superintendent of the California Home for the Care and Training of Feeble-minded Children at Santa Clara, this institution secured legislation in 1887, permitting it to establish a department for epileptics, which it subsequently did by erecting a separate cottage building capable of accommodating seventy-five children; but this is taxed beyond its capacity, there being one hundred of this class now in the institution.

Admissions are restricted to those showing marked mental enfeeblement. Dr. Osborne writes under date of May 9, 1894, "It

is our intention, after the completion of our main building, to add other small buildings or cottages to our epileptic department, that we may extend the benefits of the institution to the more curable and hopeful class of epileptics."

A law was recently passed by the Michigan legislature, providing for the care and treatment of epileptics and the feeble-minded in separate buildings on the cottage plan. A farm has been purchased to carry out this project, and a contract made for putting up buildings.

A new custodial building for women and girls has just been opened at the School for the Feeble-minded at Faribault in Minnesota; and a department for epileptics, with special supervisory care, has been established. Mr. Hart, secretary of the Board of Corrections and Charities of that State, says: "We have already, I think, under public care about one hundred and twenty epileptics. There is some sentiment in the State in favor of a separate institution for epileptics, and I think it possible that our Board may recommend to the next legislature the creation of such an institution."

In Maryland the plan of buying a small country place and beginning an epileptic colony is being carried out by the King's Daughters of Baltimore.

In some other States, State Boards of Charities and Charity Organization Societies have long been, and are still, endeavoring to secure more humane and intelligent care for epileptics. In New York State the attention of the legislature was directed to the necessity for some special provision for this class by the State Commissioner in Lunacy in his first report, as far back as 1873; and in his subsequent reports Dr. Ordronaux repeatedly emphasized the importance of the subject.

The State Board of Charities, in its report for the year 1878, directed the attention of the legislature to the lack of proper provision for this class, and appealed for State intervention in their behalf.

The present State Lunacy Commission, in its report for 1891, strongly advocated the establishment of a State hospital for the special care and treatment of sane epileptics.

No person in the State of New York, nor in this country, has done more to enlighten the public and influence legislation on this important question than Dr. Peterson. This he has done through

addresses before medical and other societies, State conventions of superintendents of the poor, and able contributions to the public press.

Under the auspices of the State Charities Aid Association a bill was introduced in the New York legislature in 1892, and passed the same year, directing the State Board of Charities to select a suitable site on which to establish an institution on the colony plan for the medical treatment, care, education, and employment of epileptics, and to prepare plans and estimates of cost of buildings, and submit the same to the next legislature. A committee of the Board, composed of its president and two commissioners, spent a considerable part of the following summer in looking up a site, and finally recommended the purchase of a tract of land situated in the famous Genesee Valley, the garden of the State. The site was, in aboriginal days, an Indian village, and bore the Indian name of Sonyea, with the poetical signification of sunshine. The tract contains 1,872 acres of highly productive land. It was owned by the United Society of Christian Believers, commonly designated Shakers, who, in consequence of a reduction in their numbers, desired to sell their estate, and consolidate the settlement with another branch of their society. Over the property was distributed a large number of buildings, including comfortable dwellings, capacious barns, stables, workshops, and a mill having a good water-power supplied by an unfailing, quick-flowing stream, which centrally traverses and drains the whole property. Here are extensive orchards of apple, pear, peach, plum, and apricot trees, with large berry and vegetable gardens, producing every variety of garden products. The place is easily accessible. A north and south railway, with a station upon the property, intersects all the east and west trunk lines of railway that pass through the State. The property is in every way admirably adapted for the purposes of an epileptic colony, it having been used and developed by the Shakers as a colony.

Based upon the report of the State Board of Charities, a bill was introduced in the legislature in 1893, by the request of the State Charities Aid Association, to purchase the Shaker property, and to establish thereon a colony for epileptics, to be known as the Sonyea Colony. The bill was almost unanimously indorsed by the legislature and by the public press, but for economic reasons was not approved by the governor. Thus, after much labor and sacrifice of

time, those interested in charity work, especially in the epileptic class, were sadly disappointed.

The same bill, however, with slight modifications, was introduced under the same auspices in the legislature of 1894 by Hon. Hamilton Fish, and has become a law of the State. This act, memorable in the history of New York State charities, was approved by Governor Flower April 26, 1894, having passed the Assembly by a vote of ninety-six to four, and the Senate by a unanimous vote. It is designated "An Act to establish an Epileptic Colony, and making an appropriation therefor." For the purpose of doing away the suggestion of an institution for a diseased class the word "epileptic" was omitted from the legal name of the corporation. With a view to memorialize fittingly the distinguished public services of Hon. Oscar Craig, late President of the State Board of Charities, whose death occurred Jan. 2, 1894, the following declaration was made in the first section of the act: —

> There shall be established in Livingston County, in this State, a colony for epileptics, to be known as the Craig Colony, thus named in honor of the late Oscar Craig, of Rochester, N.Y., whose efficient and gratuitous public services in behalf of epileptics and other dependent unfortunates the State desires to commemorate.

The objects of the colony are stated to be "to secure the humane, curative, scientific, and economical treatment and care of epileptics, exclusive of insane epileptics."

The act requires that the buildings and improvements upon the property shall be utilized, and that a general plan shall be adopted in accord with the recommendations in the report of the State Board of Charities to the legislature in 1893, and that subsequently all buildings shall be made to subserve such design and recommendations and true economy.

The colony is subject to the supervision of the State Board of Charities, and the Board is required to report annually what appropriations are necessary for it. The board of managers consists of five persons appointed by the governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, for terms of five years, their terms so arranged that one member retires annually. They receive no compensation for their services, but are allowed their reasonable travelling and official expenses. The board of managers appoints the superintendent and treasurer, and is charged with the entire government,

discipline, management, and business of the colony. The superintendent is the chief executive officer, subject to the supervision and control of the board of managers; and it is required that he be a well-educated physician, a graduate of a legally chartered medical college, with an experience of at least five years in actual practice in his profession, including one year's actual experience in a general hospital, and that he shall be certified as qualified by the Civil Service Commission, after a competitive examination. The superintendent appoints the steward, matron, and subordinate officers and teachers, and determines their salaries, subject to the approval of the State Comptroller. He may, in his discretion, suspend or discharge any of his subordinates.

Epileptics of all ages, residing in the State, who are dependent, are received and gratuitously supported. They are designated as State patients. Such other epileptics as can be conveniently accommodated are admitted by special agreement upon such terms as are deemed just by the superintendent, and are designated as private patients. In the reception of patients preference is given to poor or indigent epileptics or the children of poor or indigent persons. Preference is also given to those who are partially indigent over those who are able to furnish support. For State patients there must be paid annually by the authorities sending them the sum of thirty dollars each for clothing. Should an epileptic State patient become insane, he is transferred to the State hospital of the district, or institution for the insane in the district, of which he was a resident prior to his admission.

Before deciding upon the selection of the Sonyea site, every possible precaution was taken by the committee of the State Board of Charities to guard against mistakes. Statistics were gathered showing the healthfulness of the locality; a chemical analysis was made of the water, to determine its purity and suitableness for family use; a civil engineer was engaged to examine and report on the sufficiency of the water supply and the facilities for disposing of sewage; a survey was made of the land, to determine its boundaries and acreage; and the numerous buildings upon the property were examined by the architect,* and their capacity and adaptability to colony purposes considered.

The plans submitted to the legislature were based upon principles

* George J. Metzger, of Buffalo.

previously enunciated by Dr. Peterson, who is considered the highest authority in our land upon this subject. It is gratifying to state that the governor has appointed him a member of the managing board, and that he has since been elected its president.

It would seem, with this magnificent estate for a foundation, and the favorable auspices under which it begins its existence, that we may reasonably expect in the Craig Colony the attainment of an ideal institution.

The colony system for the care of epileptics, which has proved so beneficent on the continent of Europe, was developed there under the auspices of private and unofficial charity. Whether we shall attain as satisfactory results under a State and official system as under one directed by a spirit of pure benevolence is a question. However this may be, to organize the work in the State of New York on a large scale on the basis of private charity has been found impracticable. We may indulge the hope that the work as undertaken by the State will be more comprehensive than it would have been otherwise, and that the aggregate of good accomplished, if measured by the number benefited, will be greater.

X.

The Insane.

DUTY OF THE STATE TO THE INSANE.

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Physicians, from the nature of their occupation and from a conservatism which is part of professional tradition and practice, do not often, possibly not as often as they should, speak upon matters of public interest in ways best calculated to reach public attention. Professional and technical publications, the reports of societies and public or incorporated institutions, contain often matter which might be of much value to the general public in matters of preventive medicine, public or private hygiene, the care of the dependent or defective; but it is buried from the sight of the mass of the great reading public, and fails in the great mission which it might accomplish. Such an occasion as this affords an excellent opportunity to speak in behalf of an unfortunate class of our fellow-men, and through this audience I may hope to awaken increased public interest in the insane.

A consideration of the duty of the State to the insane may, I think, be very properly based upon some of the propositions of that great apostle of non-restraint, Conolly. In his work, "An Inquiry Concerning the Indications of Insanity, with Suggestions for the Better Care of the Insane" he announced the following propositions: —

"I. That no person who is not insane should be treated as an insane person. II. That all who are insane should be properly taken care of. III. That the friends of individuals who are insane should be able to procure such immediate aid as the case requires.

IV. That all who are in a sound state of mind should feel that in case of becoming afflicted with insanity they would be protected. . . . That every means, medical, moral, and mental, will be patiently and perseveringly and scientifically employed for their restoration to sound mind."

Following, as we so closely do in many other things, the English law and practice, it has come to be an accepted fact that those who, from birth or by reason of the accidents and ills of life, are *non compos mentis*, are peculiarly deserving of the watchful guardianship of the State. The earliest English laws had only to do with the estates of these unfortunates which were the king's prerogative, and out of which their owners were, by legal provision, provided for in accordance with the customs of the time. It came to be observed, in time, that enactments which had regard only to the estates of the insane did not meet all the requirements of the case, and that their persons as well as estates needed care and custody. Having in view always the "liberty of the subject," which could not be violated without due process of law and for good and sufficient reason, statutes were framed which permitted the restraint of the insane, confining their application at first to those only who were manifestly dangerous to themselves or to others. Gradually the question of confinement for curative purposes came to be considered, and its necessity admitted, until at the present time all civilized countries recognize in some way the legality of commitments to asylums and hospitals of those of the insane who are not of necessity dangerous, but whose detention is justified by the exigencies of treatment.

The earliest provision made in England for the safe custody of lunatics is but one hundred and fifty years old, being the Vagrant Act of 1744. By this act two justices were authorized to secure any furious or dangerous lunatic, order him to be locked up, and, if necessary, chained.

The sole factor, as I have said, which in England and America appears to have been so essential to the legal custody of the insane, has been this element of danger either to himself or others which might be asserted of the lunatic. The courts have, in nearly all of their decisions, recognized this as the sole excuse for depriving a patient of his liberty, and have, with few exceptions, ignored the broad principles of care and cure.

Chief Justice Shaw, several years ago, announced that there were

other considerations besides those of safety which warranted the commitment and detention of the insane, the leading principle being the "great law of humanity." Other courts have followed in this line, until now the question of necessary treatment is one which the judges appear willing to consider. Insanity from the outset, with a few exceptions, takes from the individual or impairs his self-control, and thus in a sense deprives him of his liberty of action. For this reason his friends or the public officials are compelled to act for him, and must select those agencies which shall best promote his restoration to health and secure his safety. His judgment is impaired or wholly overthrown; he cannot plan or pursue a course of action which shall be for his best interest; and, while he may not be dangerous to himself or to the safety of others, he is in danger of so increasing the peril in which he stands by neglect of treatment or an improper course of life that the "great law of humanity" makes it incumbent that the courts shall sanction the steps which are taken for his treatment and safe care. From the inception of a case of insanity the patient is, by virtue of the disease with which he is suffering, deprived in a sense of his liberty, the sole remaining question being to what further extent must his liberty be abridged by the exigencies of treatment or custody.

If we admit that the insane, by reason of their mental disturbance or incapacity, their impaired judgment, defective will-power, and disturbed self-control, need the care and control of others, the question naturally arises, how shall this best be applied? Now, in this simple question, as I look at it, there are several elements: first, how best for the patient; second, how best for his immediate family and friends; third, how best for the State or Commonwealth.

If the patient belong to the wealthy class, the question number one admits of several replies; but some of these must in a measure be modified by the answer that shall be given to number two.

Home care is applicable to a patient of this class if he is able to command the services of physicians skilled in the treatment of his malady, if his surroundings are appropriate for his custody, and if suitable nurses can be engaged to attend upon him.

If his residence be in a city, it is rarely that it is of such character that the patient can be cared for without too greatly limiting his freedom, and bringing him possibly in contact with matters which aggravate his condition. Wherever his residence, however, the state

of his family and those friends who immediately surround him must be carefully ascertained before the experiment of home care be undertaken,— an experiment which, in the anxiety and strain which it entails, may be fraught with the most serious consequences to relatives inheriting, perchance, the same unstable, nervous organization which has, in the case under consideration, carried the patient over the border line.

This class of cases, however, does not come under the purview of charity organizations or boards, and may be dismissed with the single remark that, wherever and however cared for, these patients should still be regarded as particularly wards of the State. They should, whether in private care as "single patients" or in incorporated or licensed asylums, hospitals, or retreats, be registered in the office of some State Board charged through the courts, or otherwise, with such powers of supervision that the best interests of the patient — namely, that treatment commensurate with his station and ability, which is best calculated to promote his recovery, or, that being beyond hope, his peace and comfort — shall be faithfully pursued.

For all those supported at public charge, either wholly or in part, the best care is to be obtained in State hospitals or hospitals with an established standard of care, a complete medical staff, and under thorough State supervision. From a purely selfish standpoint this is best for the commonwealth, for it places her disabled citizens in the best position to be restored to usefulness. To these points I shall again refer.

The detention of persons alleged to be insane, even for the wise and beneficent purposes of treatment, should be brought about, and can at this present time be brought about, without danger of the detention of those who are not insane. There is still, however, in the mind of the public a suspicion that sane citizens are frequently deprived of their liberty, and with no just cause committed to institutions for the insane. Moreover, the majority of the enactments in force in the United States, and, indeed, in England to-day, appear to have been framed upon the most remarkable suspicion, that the citizens of the State were in constant danger of being spirited behind the bars of an asylum and forever disappearing from the view of the outside world.

So strong appears to have been the conviction that medical men were ready to conspire to commit their fellow-citizens to asylums

for the insane, and that the medical officers of asylums were waiting to aid and abet them, that the laws of some States to-day direct that each examiner shall see and examine the patient separately, thus debarring each and the suspected lunatic from the benefits of conjoined examination and consultation.

Hear what an eminent English author, for many years Lord Chancellor's Visitor in Lunacy, says upon this point, which also found lodgment in English lunacy law: —

It seems, if one thinks of it, a strange embodiment of jealousy and distrust; for in other instances, where the opinions of two or more medical men are required, the opposite course is taken, in order to secure the great advantage of combined observation. When in any other form of disease it is desired to confirm the opinion of one medical man by that of another, what would be thought of the wisdom of a proposal that each man should examine the patient separately? When medical men examine a patient together, they usefully check each other, and are of the greatest mutual assistance in observing correctly and estimating rightly the symptoms of disease,— a consideration of the greatest importance in cases of mental disease, whereof the main symptoms are words spoken by the patient, which often convey a different meaning to the minds of different people. If the lunacy laws had not been imbued with distrust of the medical profession, they would never have contained an enactment abrogating all the advantages of medical consultation. Rather would they have enacted that the examination should be a joint one, the opinion concurrent, and the report thereof, or certificate, mutual.

In view of the assertion and implication that the insane are improperly committed, it may be of interest to examine the testimony of the late Lord Shaftesbury, for over forty years the head of the English Lunacy Commission,— a man who was eminently entitled to be called the friend of the insane, and whose whole life was spent in improving their condition.

In his testimony before the Parliamentary Committee of 1877 he says of the one hundred and eighty-five thousand certificates of lunacy that had passed through the hands of the committee from 1859 to 1877 that he is "quite certain"—I quote his own language —"that, out of the one hundred and eighty-five thousand, there was not one who was not shut up upon good, fair, *prima facie* evidence that he ought to be under care and treatment." Speaking further upon this subject of commitment, he said that, in his opinion, sufficient safeguards were thrown about the liberty of the subject.

This has also been the experience of the various members of the New York State Commission in Lunacy, now in its twentieth year, and of the Pennsylvania Commission, the legal member of which writes me, "I have never known of a case of fraudulent commitment, I have never met a person who has known of such a case."

If the insane are to be cared for with their recovery in view, every obstacle, as far as practicable, should be removed from their early commitment to asylums and hospitals.

Dr. J. C. Bucknill, for many years Lord Chancellor's Visitor in Lunacy, says: —

> I think the principle should be to make the admission as easy as possible, in order to provide for early treatment, and to make the discharge as easy as possible. In order, also, to provide for early treatment; for, if there is difficulty in getting a patient out of the asylums, there will be a disinclination to send them in.

The satisfaction of the public, and the accomplishment of what Dr. Conolly lays down in his first proposition, can, I am sure, be more surely brought about than by any rigid and exacting laws concerning the commitment of patients.

This can be accomplished through Lunacy Commissions with full and free powers of inspection of all places where the insane are confined, and such laws as shall insure ready and sure means of communication on the part of any person detained as insane with such Commissions.

To the great and important services which properly constituted Lunacy Boards can render the public and the insane, I have but time for a passing reference. Primarily, examining their functions in the order of Conolly's propositions, they can, by frequent inspection and prompt attention to all allegations of improper detention, whether by patients or from other sources, prevent the deprivation of any sane person's liberty in an asylum. They can, by such inspection, by the comparison of the methods of various institutions within their jurisdiction, by a broad and liberal study of the relations of the State to the insane and to the institutions for the insane, aid in bringing about the consummation of the great desideratum "that all who are insane shall be properly taken care of."

Such a commission, either as a distinct organization or as a part of the general Charity Board of a State, should exist in every State. It, like the administration of the charities of the State, should be

free from the least suspicion of political bias or chicanery. It should be composed of men of broad and liberal views, fearless in exposing and rebuking wrong. The functions of such a commission should comprise a careful scrutiny of the papers upon which patients are committed, an inquiry into the propriety of commitment or of further detention, an examination into the treatment pursued, and a careful investigation of all causes of complaint. To these may be added, and from these would result in a measure, a constant attempt to instill into the minds of the patients confidence in and a respect for those having them in charge and directing their treatment.

But there are in every State large numbers of the insane not in institutions, either public or private. These have no board to whom they can appeal. Every Board of Managers or Trustees of a public or incorporated hospital of the insane is in itself a Commission in Lunacy, and may redress wrong, discharge those improperly detained, correct improper treatment. The patients in private care have no such court of appeal, and can only obtain redress through the slow and complicated machinery of the law, and to that, it may be feared, are sometimes denied access.

It is very firmly my opinion that, as the State exercises watch and guard over the *property* of the insane, it should do the same over their *persons*, and, through the agency of proper officers, see that all these unfortunates, whether in public institutions or private care, whether treated for hire or maintained at home, are protected from indignity, and that a certain proper standard of care commensurate with the means and position of the patient is maintained.

The helplessness and dependence of these unfortunates appeal strongly for this protecting care. The Commission in Lunacy of the State of Pennsylvania has reported numerous cases of neglect of the insane, or worse, discovered by members of the commission in private houses in that State; and I do not hesitate to believe that the members of this Conference could add to the painful catalogue from their own experience in the charity work of their own communities.

In a report to the Lord Lieutenant upon the lunacy administration of Ireland, Sir Arthur Mitchell, the efficient chairman of the Scotch Lunacy Commission, says, in advising a Board of Lunacy, "The control and supervision of the State over insane persons in Ireland should, as far as possible, be intrusted to this Board, and should

extend to such insane persons, whether they are rich or poor, whether they are in asylums or out of them."

It seems to me certain that any consideration of the duty of the State to the insane would be imperfect which did not urge the establishment of some central supervisory board,— a board not charged with the execution of the lunacy laws, but with seeing that they are properly executed; a board which, like the English and Scotch boards, could do much to maintain and advance the *esprit de corps* of asylum officials, and, by judicious suggestions and careful supervision, establish a standard of care commensurate with the demands of modern philanthropy and science.

I am sure that asylum officials would gladly work in harmony with such commissions if conducted upon lines which recognized the responsibility of these officials, and if the commissions did not degenerate into mere bureaucracies. They would recognize that in such commissions the public possessed a source of independent information which would sweep away much of the mystery and superstition which now trammel the mind of the people concerning the care of the insane, and would feel that, between their work and unjust criticism or sensational rumor, there was an independent body which could repel unjust accusation as quickly as it could correct improper performance of duty.

Such boards would then be efficient aids in bringing about the second of our propositions,— "that all who are insane shall be properly taken care of." But boards and asylum officials and charity organizations can do little without proper means. I think it may be stated, without successful contradiction, that, for all of the insane who come under public care, this "proper care" can be best obtained in well organized and equipped State hospitals, and in most instances only so obtained.

An eminent medico-psychologist, who some years ago addressed you, opened his remarks with a quotation from Daniel Defoe, that the care of the insane constitutes "a rent charge upon the whole community."

I know of no other condition, not even blindness or paralysis, which is so essentially pauperizing in its results as insanity, and which so thoroughly demands public assistance. No matter what other disease attacks a member of a family, among the self-supporting and self-respecting laboring class home care is possible; and,

in the majority of instances, if we except capital surgical operations, home care is given. The other members of the family unite in taking the place and sharing the burden temporarily laid down by the bread-winner; and there are always some who can assume in some sense the functions of nurse and attendant upon the sick. Not so with insanity. In many cases, violence, or threatened violence, renders restriction of liberty of some form necessary; and, in numerous others, ignorance of the best methods to follow imposes restraint which under other conditions would not be necessary. If institutional care is sought at the expense of the family of the patient, even at comparatively low rates, if anything like proper care is obtainable, it creates a draft which soon exhausts the resources of those who are in comparatively comfortable circumstances. If, from the dread of this cost, an unreasoning suspicion and doubt of institutional care, or the lack of those resources in a community, which constitute the "immediate aid" of the third and the "proper care" of the second proposition, the patient is detained at home, the results are often most disastrous; and, in the end, the case comes upon the public charge, a burden of hopeless chronic lunacy.

A recital of the means employed to care for insane persons at home, either from a disinclination to seek public aid, a lack of faith in public institutions, or the want of some convenient institution, or of room in those at hand, would be not necessarily a reflection upon the humanity of the relatives of these patients, but upon the lack of education and public information upon the proper care of the insane.

I knew of one man who for months wore a log of wood three feet in length and six inches in diameter chained to his leg, lest he run away, who within ten days after coming to a State hospital was at work in the garden with hoe and rake. I knew of the widow of a clergyman whose only out-of-door exercise for weeks was at the end of a chain attached to one corner of a veranda, and whose nights were spent upon a litter of straw inside a crockery crate. But why rehearse the sad catalogue? And where rests the blame? Do we not all of us carry some of the burden? Have we done all that we should to secure that condition of affairs in our State and community suggested by Conolly's third proposition,—"that the friends of the insane should be able to procure such immediate aid as the case requires"?

What does this immediate aid mean? How much of foundation

is there for the demand for early treatment which those acquainted with the subject are constantly making? Let us see what a story figures tell. From Oct. 1, 1888, to Oct. 1, 1892, there were discharged from the State Hospitals of New York, as recovered, 2,182 patients, of whom 1,675, or nearly 77 per cent., had been insane less than one year when admitted. During that period, and for some time previous, less than 50 per cent. of the admissions had been insane under one year when received, so that over three-fourths of all the recoveries were taken from less than one-half of all the admissions to the hospital system of this great State. The statistics of the asylums and hospitals of Pennsylvania tell the same story in almost exactly the same percentages, and other figures telling the same story could be cited. If these figures mean anything, they mean that prompt treatment is required in insanity as in other diseases, and that everything should be done to bring "immediate" aid to these cases, and nothing done which shall throw an obstacle in the way of obtaining such aid. If the remaining one-half had been admitted within a year of the commencement of the attack, what a saving to the State in lives restored to usefulness! Surely there is a tide in the progress of madness which, seized at the flood, leads on to fortune,— the precious fortune of health. Neglected, all the life is spent in shoals and shallows.

So strongly was the late Lord Shaftesbury imbued with the belief in the necessity of early treatment that, when it was proposed by legal enactment to place increased difficulties in the way of prompt treatment, he resigned his office rather than by retaining his position seem to sanction such law.

A celebrated English author has well said that, "of all the uncertainties of our present state, the most dreadful and alarming is the uncertain continuance of reason."

This being the case, all will admit the wisdom of the fourth proposition which I have quoted: —

> That all who are in a sound state of mind should feel that, in case of becoming afflicted with insanity, they would be protected; . . . that every means — medical, moral, and mental — will be patiently, perseveringly, and scientifically employed for their restoration to sound mind.

I have pointed out how the protection of the State could be thrown around its insane wards through the agency of properly constituted

Lunacy Commissions charged with inspection of institutions and other places where the insane are detained, and interested in maintaining the highest standard of care and treatment. The humblest citizen of a State is entitled to her protection, and never more so than in a state of insanity. What shall we say, then, to those in position and power who befoul the temple of our liberties with their self-seeking, who look upon the conduct of our charities and reformatories and hospitals as part of party spoil, and bargain and barter in the blood and groans and misery of their fellow-beings? Who shall weave a whip of scorpions, and drive these worse than money-changers from the temple?

A few days ago I picked up at random the report of an institution for the insane in a State noted for the fact that the control of her public institutions, the care and treatment of her sick and unfortunate, is parcelled out as a reward for political service,— a State where a party shibboleth rather than scientific knowledge, political zeal rather than humanitarian motives, seem to be requisite to be intrusted with the custody and treatment of the unfortunate,— and found that in twenty years eight changes had been made in the medical superintendency. Thirteen of these twenty years were occupied by the service of two men, so that the remaining six served an average of fourteen months each. Does such bartering as this with place and power sound like protection of the insane? How thoroughly, think you, could every means, medical, moral, and mental, be applied, when such changes occur?

In a community actuated by the highest principles of political economy such a condition of affairs could not exist. The existence of such conditions in other departments of our political administration, coupled with the fact that those who cry "To the victors belong the spoils" have not hesitated to make the sick and insane part of those spoils, should offer food for serious reflection.

The application of the best means to the care of the insane implies that those charged with that care should be wholly independent of political influence or pressure. The conduct of our State and municipal institutions should be intrusted to boards carefully selected, chosen because of their interest in philanthropic work and their ability to grasp the great and constantly broadening questions involved.

Under the control and supervision of these boards the medical

officers should, as they have the final responsibility for the medical work and its results, have supreme authority in all details of medical care and administration.

My time and your patience are both too nearly exhausted to permit a discussion of the situation and character of the buildings constituting the hospital which the State should devote to the care of its insane.

I remember, also, that one who recently stood in my place has very thoroughly treated that subject. I run the risk, however, of tediousness, that I may insist, in passing, that not enough is done in the majority of even our best State hospitals for the insane of the acute, or recoverable, class.

Much discussion has been expended on what is best for the chronic insane; and, I believe, lasting honor has been achieved by those States which, like New York, have resolved that none of this class shall longer languish in almshouses. But with such action comes the necessity of enlarging existing institutions and building new ones.

I believe that, in respect to our institutions already in existence, if the land surrounding them permits, the problem is quite simple; and its solution consists in erecting annexes, built upon most carefully elaborated plans, for the treatment of all recent cases, and all other cases needing temporary hospital care. By carefully made plans I do not mean to imply by any means expensive or extensive structures. Ten per cent. of the general average population of an ordinary hospital for the insane would measure the necessary accommodation such a building should furnish. The building should be constructed for the best care of its inmates, the separation of the noisy, the sick, the destructive. Here the best talent of the medical staff should be at work; and here that trained nursing which, I trust, we shall some day see in all our institutions for the insane, and about which we are to hear something at this Conference, could do its best work. Laboratories for clinical study, and investigation, among other things, of those forms of auto-intoxication, or defective excretion, which seem at the bottom of so many of our common forms of nervous break-down which terminate in insanity, would here find ample material.

Baths, electricity, massage, would all find their proper field; and in the end the recovered patient would feel that he had been in

not an asylum, but a hospital. And that, my friends, measures the whole scope of what I would explain of this plan. A hospital in function and work and results, not in name alone, is what the State should establish. In such hospitals clinical study and instruction could be established, so that our young medical men could not say: "I was never taught anything about insanity. I know of no place where I can study it," as they are now compelled to say.

It is possibly an ideal system which I have hastily and imperfectly sketched; but the ideal is, I believe, capable of realization, and is certainly worth striving for. By such means can that condition laid down in Conolly's fourth proposition be attained. If we are to turn the tide of insanity, which is yearly rising higher from accumulation, from the large and regular importation of cases from foreign shores, and arising as the result of the rush, bustle, worry, and dissipation of modern life, we can only do it by the best care, the best attention, and the most careful study of the disease in its acute stages and curable forms. As the result of such study, it may well be that forms now regarded as hopeless will be added to the recoverable list.

And this is the parting thought I would leave with you, so well expressed by the poet Shelley: —

> "'Twas, perhaps, an idle thought;
> But I imagined that, if, day by day,
> I watched him, and seldom went away,
> And studied all the beatings of his heart
> With zeal, as men study some stubborn art
> For their own good, and could by patience find
> An entrance to the caverns of his mind,
> I might reclaim him from his dark estate."

XI.

Conference Sermon.*

"BEAR YE ONE ANOTHER'S BURDENS."

BY REV. COLLINS DENNY,

PROFESSOR IN VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY.

"Bear ye one another's burdens, and so fulfil the law of Christ." — GAL. vi. 2.

These words are a command, or at the least an admonition, enforced by a motive. Let us consider first the meaning and the application of the motive, and then the admonition.

What does this expression, the law of Christ, mean? We are so accustomed to use in a very loose way some of these deeper expressions of human thought that it is well now and then to halt, and with such instruments as are available to survey the field intended to be covered by such terms.

There are three possible interpretations of "the law of Christ." We have the phrase "the law of Moses," and these may be taken as analogous. The former may then indicate the body of principles of which Jesus Christ was the author. Frequently we use the expression in that sense. In the second sense, this may be looked upon as a specific command of Christ, one so far-reaching, so wonderful, so noble, as to be called, by way of distinction, Christ's law. In fact, this is the interpretation of some of those who comment on this passage. Lastly, the words may mean the ruling principle of Christ's life. They give the key to that life so far as it expressed itself toward humanity. These are three conceivable interpretations of "the law of Christ."

In favor of the first interpretation, we have an expression in the Epistle to the Romans, xiii. 10, — "Love is the fulfilling of the law,"

* Stenographer's notes, corrected by the preacher.

— so that we might say the whole teaching of Jesus Christ is love. Law is that which Love fulfils. This is a high ideal. It soars beyond the thought of many who have undertaken to deal with these great questions that concern human life. Human thought had proceeded but a little way on its journey before it began to take up these questions. Soon after men began to think and to formulate their thought,— certainly soon after the Greek thought began,— they commenced to deal with questions of virtue, of love, of happiness. And they have left for our encouragement and for the stirring up of our minds the results they have reached in the consideration of these great themes. But none of them touched such a point that they looked upon love as the fulfilment of all law. Wherever law is truly fulfilled, no matter what that law may be, unless behind the arm that wields the power and executes the statute and enforces the sanction there be a heart that beats in love, the law is never truly fulfilled. It does not seem so to our blurred eyes as we look on the world and its suffering and its agony; but to those who are clear-eyed, better informed, and who take the light that has come to them, these are simply the throes and the struggles by which the race is reaching a higher point in its development. We stand to-day at a point in the development of the race that has never been known in all the past, so far as we have any record. So, when we use the words, Love is the fulfilling of the law, and one asks, What law? we reply, Any law, every law, all law. We seem to have caught the meaning of the writer when he says "the law of Christ."

In proof of the second interpretation, we have at least one specific command of Christ, to love. To take one out of a number of passages, "A new commandment I give unto you, That ye love one another; as I have loved you, that ye also love one another" (John xiii. 34). This would be analogous to the statement that we make when we speak of Newton's law of gravitation. So the apostle might have spoken of Christ's law.

These two interpretations look upon law as separate from Christ, as something he said, and not so much as what he was. They do not commend themselves to my mind as the true meaning of these words. The third explanation, that which looks upon these words as indicating the ruling principle of Christ's life, as giving the key to the interpretation of that life so far as it expressed itself in his humanity, seems to be the primary meaning of these words. They

become the statement of what Christ was: they indicate the purpose of his life as expressed by his acts.

A slight consideration of the meaning of the difficult notion "law" will establish the truth of this interpretation. Law comprehends uniformity. Take, for instance, the law of gravitation. We find in every particle of matter an invariable order, a fixed uniformity, a repetition. Every particle of matter in every place, in all time, attracts every other particle with a certain force that is expressed in the formulation of the law; and, when we have made that discovery, we give expression to it in the most exact words we can, and the formulation is a law. It was just as much a law, except that it lacked expression, before we discovered it. There are numbers of laws we have never formulated which are just as truly laws as any that men have ever framed in words.

You see, then, there are two elements in law,— an invariable order of facts, and the expression of the order. What is the law of gravitation? That every particle attracts every other particle. What is the fact? That every particle of matter attracts every other particle. Except that the law has been stated, there is no difference between the law and the fact. Yet, strange to say, the magazines and books of the time are full of hints that there is no need for God in the universe, that law does everything. Evidently, the men who make such statements never have thought what law is. If they mean that the formulated expression does anything, then they are speaking a language that is utterly incomprehensible to many of us. If they mean that the fact does something, we meet them thus: The conception of fact is something done, not something that does. Law does nothing, can do nothing. It is either a statement of an invariable order of facts, or a command for an invariable order of acts. Laws are not self-executive. It seems, then, that uniformity, order, repetition, is the root notion of law, the fundamental and generic notion.

Then we come right to the text, the law of Christ. This is the expression in words of the uniformity, the order, the repetition, in his life. If we look into his life, it is not a disordered life, though he was a man of sorrows and acquainted with grief. If we look into his actions, all of which were characteristic of the heart that lay behind them, expressive of the spirit that formed his life, we find order, harmony, repetition, uniformity, in every condition in which he was placed; and we call that, because it is the true meaning of the word, the law of Christ.

Now, I am convinced this is the primary meaning of the expression in the text; yet I accept the other interpretations as secondary.

Let this be granted. Where, then, is the motive in these words? Christ not only redeemed man by his death, but also taught men how to live; and he offers to man the power without which no one can live as he ought. It must have occurred to some of you that there has been a problem all through the ages as to what is the meaning of life, what is its aim,— not only whence did we come, but why are we here? Here is one who makes the chief end of life pleasure. Here is one who finds this world only a sphere for exploration. He goes from land to land, and gives all of his life to the seeing of places. Here is another who, day after day, pores over the works of those who have gone before, while forgetful of the lives of those who are about him. And here is another who, standing up in the midst of his surroundings, and hearing the wail of human sorrow, and seeing the rain of human tears, looks upon life as an opportunity to lift up the hearts that are trodden on, and to dry the eyes that have never known aught but weeping. Each of these persons indicates by his actions his answer to the question why we are here. Every one of us in our acts answers that question in some way. And I have often wondered how many of us would be able at the last to stand in the presence of God, before the light of his glory, and confess the motive of our life.

Why are we living? What are we doing with these fast fleeting moments? What use are we making of opportunity? I heard a scholar not long since say that life is like a man standing on a shore, looking toward the sea. A sail comes in sight filled with propitious breezes. For a moment it is in sight, halts, and then sails on. If we fail to take passage, it passes away forever, and we see it no more. It passes away. We have never put our feet on her deck, sometimes not even seen her, and she is gone forever. Opportunity,— opposite the port once for each of us. That question has stirred the mind of men in all ages,— Why are we here? We have the answer in the life of Jesus Christ. He taught men how to live. He answered the question, not simply in theory, but in that concrete act of life; and more, on the basis of his atonement he offers man the power without which no man can live as he ought.

There is in man a desire to do his duty,— a God-given desire it is. We know it exists: it is a fact of consciousness. The most

depraved of men may still be found sometimes to answer the call of duty. Yes; it is found in every man,— this desire to do duty. The only plunge that breaks that link to the divine is the plunge that lands a man in hell. So long as a man stands on this earth, this side of the gates of death, that desire is found,— sometimes weak, sometimes like smouldering flax, but always there. And it is the link upon which Christ lays hold by his human nature, as he stands at the head of humanity, and in his relation to man, urging him to do his duty.

Now, then, we are brought face to face with another phase of truth about law. In the material world a law is nothing more than an expression of an invariable order of facts. In the moral world the law and the facts are often as widely separated as the poles. One of the simplest expressions of the moral law is, "Thou shalt not trespass." But how about the fact? When we express a law in the material world, that expression of it, if it be true, accords exactly with the facts. When we express the law in the moral world, that expression, though it be true, many times fails to accord with facts. And this is the reason all of the efforts to give a definition of law in every sphere and application have failed, and, it would seem, must fail in all time until men are brought into such a relation to God that there is the same harmony in the moral world that we find in the physical world. Law in the physical world is expressed in the indicative mood; in the moral world, in the imperative mood. In the one we see no alternative, simply strict necessity: in the other there is an alternative, true freedom.

But what do we mean by trespass? Trespass is an interference of one person with the right of another; and the word may be defined as "the infringement and diminution of the exercise of the right of one person by another." The law commands, "Thou shalt not trespass." Its voice is heard above the din and discord of human wrong and sin. But in the moral realm the fact is apparent to every one that, instead of order, uniformity, repetition, there is disorder, difference, chaos. Indeed, the paradoxical statement that there is in the moral world an order of disorder is almost a correct representation of the facts. What a contrast, then, between the physical and the moral world! The enormous masses of our solar system pursue their orderly way, "placing before our very eyes an actualization of what we ought to attain in the moral world by our

own conduct," forever singing, as they shine, Obey the voice of God. We look out into the night, and watch those worlds that have followed through all the ages the track appointed to them; and they summon us to obey the voice of God. We see printed on this material universe, printed so that he who would read can read this marvellous fact, that there is in the material universe obedience to law, to adopt that bungling phrase, admonishing us to be obedient to law in the realm of morals. Here is a universe repeating in an orderly way that which it was appointed to do. But when our eyes look out on humanity, instead of an orderly system and lives that keep their appointed orbits, we find meteorites that flame through the heavens. So we find this wide gap between the material and the moral world. But, although the confusion is worse confounded in the moral world, above it all stands the Lord Jesus Christ, exemplifying the fulfilment in life of the whole law. What a life! It is a marvel to me, whatever men may believe about his relation to the Godhead, how any word could ever be spoken against such a life as that! Born in humble surroundings, cradled in a manger, dying on a cross! Sorrowfully, he followed his appointed path, and yet, without departure from it, touching humanity on the way, and kindling a light that shines even to us, of this distant day, after nearly nineteen centuries. Point out a flaw in his life, indicate a sin that he committed. If you can, strike out the divine side of his life, and take it only on its human side, and it is the ideal life for man. How many a man, with eloquent words, has taken the life of Plato, or poor Socrates who pursued his way through Athens hammering at hypocrisies, and has exalted these men! I lift my hat in reverence before the marvellous Greek. But how the Greek pales out of sight before the lowly Nazarene, who touched life only to bless it, who left it only to shed light on the path to glory, who offers to-day his outstretched hands that we may make these lives of ours what they ought to be, by making them as nearly as we can a pattern of his own human life!

And so we find that we are called upon not to imitate Christ. The old monk, Thomas à Kempis, born about 1380, living in his cell in Germany for so many years, wrote "The Imitation of Christ." And he wrote it for the blessing of the world, too; and we can turn its pages, and learn many a lesson we need to know in the nineteenth century. Yet I believe he missed it when he called

his book "Imitation." Imitation seems to imply something of artificiality, something of simulation, something of fraud. Are we only to imitate that life? We do not find such language in the Scriptures. But in this very Epistle to the Galatians we find the words, "For as many of you as have been baptized into Christ have put on Christ." So in the Epistle to the Romans we read, "Put ye on the Lord Jesus Christ,"— not simply imitate that life, but take into your own lives his personality, that he may be the motive power by which your life is to be guided. This, then, is the motive; for the example of Christ has the force of law and command for us.

Now the admonition. Bear ye one another's burdens. Undoubtedly, the context applies these words chiefly to loving and intelligent sympathy with a fallen brother, "making his loss our own loss and sorrow, and using our powers to raise him when pressed down under a consciousness of his own sin." But this is simply a specific application of a general principle, just as we find the widest, most fundamental principles of law used to settle special, and it may be comparatively unimportant, cases. It is a well-known principle of law that whatsoever a man does by another he does by himself; and that principle may be used to settle the smallest case, or it may be used in a great case on which great issues depend and on which a decision of the Supreme Court is invoked. A principle is not exhausted in its application to any special purpose. Therefore, I give these words a wide meaning. We are admonished to sympathize with one another; that is, to take the word in its literal meaning, to suffer with one another in the various trials and troubles of life, to be ready to afford comfort, counsel, assistance, according to our ability. The word "burden" must not be circumscribed, for it refers to all forms of kindnesses as well as sufferings and sin. Do you say this is to make ourselves servants of others? I admit it. It is to make ourselves servants. "By love serve one another" (Gal. v. 13).

Let us look at this a moment. "To serve is to promote the welfare of another. He who does this is a servant; one who serves,— not as manifesting a servile, cringing disposition, but in the sense that a servant is a minister (from *minus*, less). A teacher is really a servant,— a servant of his pupils, of his employers, of the public, of posterity. Politicians proclaim themselves servants of the people, speaking more truly sometimes than they think. Consider

the dignity of ministers of state. Think of the rank of the Prime Minister of England, yet his title proclaims him to be but a servant. The cognizance of the Prince of Wales, descended to him from the Black Prince, is *Ich dien*, meaning 'I serve'; and there is no heraldic cognizance more widely known or more frequently quoted. Ministers of religion are but servants of the Church. We see, then, that to be a true and faithful servant is a title of the highest degree. The king upon his throne is no more than the servant of his people, and the King of kings proclaims himself to be but a lowly servant."

"Indeed, true Christians are slaves (δουλοὶ), and are constantly designated as such in the New Testament. True, our translation renders the word 'servants,' and the Revised Version in the margin gives 'bond-servants'; but the correct translation is 'slaves.' Christians are represented as bought with a price, as no longer their own, as bound to an eternal, loving service. This they joyfully acknowledge, and are not eye-servants nor unwilling slaves, but willing and free servants. In this they reproduce the life and character of their Master, a life of complete loving sacrifice,—a sacrifice determined by a boundless love, in which he was as his Father; for God is love, and he that abideth in love abideth in God, and God in him. Herein is the law and the gospel. The Law ordained 'thou shalt love,' and love ordained that law. Man could not keep it, and love ordained the gospel. The gospel is 'God so loved.' Thus 'thou shalt love' is the whole of the law, and 'God so loved' is the whole of the gospel. This is so clear that it is at once law and gospel for children and for savages; but it is so deep in its limpid clearness that no philosopher can fathom it." The highest title that has ever decked the brow of man is that he is the servant of his fellow-men, and service means sacrifice of self.

Now, what is the extent of the word "another"? Without taking time to elaborate, let me say that it includes every man, woman, and child alive. As said the apostle in the Epistle to the Romans, "I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the barbarians, both to the wise and to the unwise." We do not hesitate to admit our debt to the Greeks. There is no one here who has ever trodden among the ruins of Grecian temples, who has stood on the spot once pressed by the foot of Demosthenes or of that almost equal speaker Pericles, or who has looked over the water of the Ægean and

seen the quiet wave now rolling where victory crowned the Grecian armies at Salamis, who does not recognize that we are debtors to the Greeks. We gather the fragments of their statues, and hold them as precious, placing them in our chief museums. And many a foot has wended its way to Rome or to London to see in the Vatican and in the British Museum the remains of Grecian sculpture. Yes, we recognize our debt to the Greeks. We read what they wrote, we study their civilization and their thought. We are learning from them to-day. Who denies the debt of humanity to the Greeks? But the apostle says, "I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the barbarians." What do we owe the barbarians? They came like a swarm of locusts from the north of Europe and ate up every green thing. They settled on the sunny plains of the south. They turned back civilization for centuries. They trod everything under foot that had characterized the upward pathway of humanity. What do we owe these barbarians? Within them is the image that shall come out clearly some day, the likeness of God. The hand that lifts them lifts up a man that is being swept to destruction. He who lays a helping hand upon some lowly barbarian may be teaching the ancestor of a Martin Luther, who shall bless the world by calling it back to a more religious life.

Whence came this increase of culture that we call in its beginning the Renaissance? It came from the descendants of those barbarians, those ancestors of you and me, who trod their bloody way from the forests of Germany, and carved for themselves a kingdom out of the quivering flesh of the ancient Britons; who sent colonies both to the James River and to Plymouth, and who won a continent for themselves; who have sent the old English language following the receding sun around this world of ours. These were the barbarians of whom Paul wrote, and we are their offspring. What do we not owe barbarians? Before we can pay them, we shall be bankrupt but for the grace of God. You hear that word by which some men are disturbed,— communism. The true communism that looks upon every soul in this light, as a field where duty can exercise itself and work out its work, is the teaching, not only of this gospel, but is embraced in the greater problems of human life. There is no limit to this field. There can be none. It knows no limit of race, of condition, of creed. Every man is swept into it. The African in our own land and in his native land is included.

We of the South, from long association with the negroes, know them best; and we know they need all the help you and we can give them. God had his end in leading Israel into Egypt. No one was grateful then; but what a nation they became! Oh, what a nation! Cradled there and sent to school in the Sinaitic wilderness, and raised to the height of Solomon's grandeur, and to the grandeur of a greater than Solomon! So God set the African in this land of ours through human selfishness. You who are from the North, your ancesters helped to bring them here; and my ancestors in the South helped to buy them of yours. I do not pretend to condemn your ancestors for bringing them here. If you want to condemn mine for buying them from yours, you may; but what I wish to show is that we are face to face with this great problem of their presence. What can we do with them? How can we help them up? How can we bring them to a higher plane of possible development? We are their debtors, and God holds us responsible. You of the North, do not turn your Gatling guns on the South, multitudes of whose people honestly want to do God's will in this matter. We cannot stand fire both from the rear and from the front; and, if we are to do the vast work that is given us to do, we want not your criticism and fault-finding, but your help. Remember that when you go back to your homes. I say it here, and I say it gladly, these Africans are our creditors; and we must pay the debt. But, when you go home, let it be known that a man cradled in the valley of Virginia before the rumble of war said on this platform that we of the South are debtors to the African in America as well as to the African in his native jungle. The treatment of them is a matter of conscience, but my interpretation of conscience does not include any judgment of the acts of another.

But the word "another" is unlimited. It includes the people of the Middle Kingdom in China, a land teeming with uncounted millions, whose burdens we must help to bear. It includes the poor, the weak, the imbecile, the lunatic, the prisoner, the drunkard, the lost woman, and the equally lost man; for may God condemn all sentiment that gives a wider range of right for immorality to the man than it gives to the woman whom we want to protect. My condemnation, so far as my judgment goes, rests on every man who intimates that men have of right a wider sphere for evil acting than women have. And may he who asserts the existence of this right receive the condemnation of his own State and of every State in this land of ours!

The lowest man and the equally lowest woman are our debtors. Oh that we may be able to pay that debt! All these are included in this word "another." Whoever has a burden is the one who, under Christ's law, is to be helped by us to the limit of our ability. Terence, the old heathen Roman poet, almost touched this point when he said, "I am a man; and I think that nothing that touches humanity is foreign to me." There is an interesting incident in connection with that statement in the works of Terence. It occurs in the first scene of the first act of the play called "Heauton-Timoroumenos." When the actor announced these words in a Roman theatre, it was such an enlargement of the horizon of those people that the enthusiasm broke up the play. And yet only twenty-five lines had been uttered before those Romans. For once they stood upon the mountain summit of a Kinchinjunga, and caught the vision of what it was to be burdened for others. "I am a man; and I think that nothing that concerns humanity is foreign to me." But, if a heathen Roman poet had such an outlook, can the follower of the Christ have a narrower limit? Indeed, the living do not mark the limit of our obligation; for this life is "a partnership not only between those who are living, but between those who are living, those who are dead, and those who are to be born." We recognize our debt to those who are dead. We build their monuments, as in our capitol square General Jackson is memorialized, just as he is in front of the White House in Washington. The tall shaft that stands four-square on the banks of the Potomac is an expression of our indebtedness to the Father of our Country. The names we give to our children are an expression of the debt we owe to those who are gone, but we sometimes forget those who are yet to be born. I walked once through the Charter House School. Probably many of us are forgetful of the fact that a plain man who made his own money endowed it,—Sir Thomas Sutton; and in this gift he did much for those silent partners who are yet unborn. Into these halls walked little Isaac Barrow, who discovered and taught Isaac Newton. Into these halls came Addison and Steele. Here also came John Wesley, a poor boy, the son of a poor man. There he sat on those hard oak benches at Charter House School. But, after he came out of the gates of Oxford, what music was his preaching! How it streamed like a river of life! Into these halls went William Blackstone; and how much are those who work in the law indebted to him for the clear expression of those hard principles of common law! Into

these halls went Grote, the historian of the Greeks, who brought back with him from the study of the past the mighty men to stand before us, claiming our admiration. Into these halls came Havelock, who marched to the relief of Lucknow through the flames of war in the heat of an Indian summer, who took the women and children under his protection, and laid down his life close by the scene of his victories, to receive after his death plaudits that ought to have nerved his arm long before he reached the end. Into the halls of Charter House went Thackeray, who has helped many of us. Sir Thomas Sutton knew none of these, but he founded a place where such as these could be prepared to make the best that could be wrought out of life. You see, then, that those yet to be born belong to the "another" mentioned in this verse by the apostle.

There was born among the mountains of Virginia many years ago a poor boy who made a fortune. It is said that he wrecked his life, but before he did it Samuel Miller laid down a million of dollars for the founding of a school where boys and girls could have every opportunity. He recognized the need of suffering humanity.

"We are all on a journey. If one is like to give way, the other must refresh him: if one is likely to fall, the other must help him up."

The subject has just been touched. The effort has been to treat it on rather a large scale; but it is a principle which, if God brings it to bear upon our hearts, will make different men, and better men, of us than we have ever been.

A sailor once told me that, if a whale be taken that already has a harpoon in it, the captor must give salvage to the vessel to which the harpoon belongs. I asked, "Ben, what do you make out of it?" He laid his old rough hand on my shoulder, and replied: "Try to do good in the world. God stamps your name and mine on every word we speak and everything we do; and, when he gathers up the jewels, don't you think he will give us salvage?" Many of us have toiled through the long day, and have no evidence that our work has been a blessing; but, ah! if when the harvest is reaped, when the grain is gathered, when the joy of the harvest home has come, if we find that one heart has been touched and helped by our lives, by our word, be sure God will not turn that life down without giving it something of commendation for that act, because done in his name and by his help. Oh that some of us may receive this text into our hearts, and go out with the determination to bear the burdens of those who need, and so fulfil the law of Christ! Amen.

XII.

Reports from States.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON REPORTS FROM STATES.

JOSEPH P. BYERS, OHIO, CHAIRMAN.

The great abundance of material furnished by the several Corresponding Secretaries with which to construct the report of this committee has been a source of some embarrassment. We have been placed in much the same predicament as would happen to an untutored savage, were he shown a heap of sand, lime, stone, brick, and other materials necessary in the construction of a dwelling, and ordered forthwith to proceed with its erection. He might be able to build four walls that would stand if properly braced, to cover these with a roof, to provide a means of egress and ingress; but it would be mere foolishness to look to such a source for the creation of a substantial, symmetrical, commodious, and sanitary building. To achieve this result, experienced architects and skilled artisans are necessary; and, when once employed and their services prove satisfactory, they are not carelessly discarded for others of whose experience and ability there has been no demonstration.

But a very similar course has been pursued by this Conference in the appointment of a Committee on Reports from States. Year after year competent and experienced and faithful committees have essayed and accomplished the task confided to them. The value of their work is fully shown in the printed Proceedings of former meetings. Forty, fifty, and sixty printed pages have annually been devoted to a review of their work. Year after year these faithful committees have been superseded by others. The experiment has been one largely of necessity, and so far has been eminently successful,—more so, indeed, than could have been hoped for or rightly

expected. But the stock of Harts, Wrights, Storrses, and Johnsons will not prove inexhaustible. It began after last year to run short.

It is time that there be secured for this important work an efficient and permanent chairman or secretary. The amount of work coming legitimately before the committee and the amount of good to be derived from its best performance are alike enormous. It cannot be done to the best advantage with a constant change occurring in the *personnel* of the committee. These changes are attended by a great loss of time and of opportunity.

The past reports are full of valuable information as to the policy and methods pursued in the respective States in caring for the unfortunate classes, and the comparisons of these reports by the committee and their deductions and suggestions have been as important and helpful as any work of the Conference.

But the reports have not gone far enough. This has been true through no fault of the committees. They have but met the limitations that have confronted the present one, and that will confront those of the future as long as the present policy is continued.

It is a matter for regret that they cannot be placed in the hands of a competent and experienced permanent chairman. In his hands their value would be greatly enhanced, better reports and more of them could be secured, some sort of system could be inaugurated and maintained, and a sure basis for intelligent comparison be established. The importance and usefulness of the committee would be increased tenfold with such a chairman. The time that is spent from year to year by new committees in the preparation of blanks and circular letters and in grasping the details of the work could be utilized to far better advantage in reviewing and tabulating results.

We have received reports from thirty-nine States, Territories, and Provinces, out of a possible fifty-three to whom circulars were sent. Printed blanks, following closely the line of information as adopted and used heretofore, were prepared. In addition to these, and accompanying them, were blanks that called for the name, character, location, and name and title of person in charge of all State institutions. Forty-one of the latter were returned, and the list accompanies and is made a part of this report.

Most of the reports received are full and complete, some of them exhaustive. Every one of them contains information that will repay careful study and comparison. This latter we believe to be the

proper work of the committee; for it is only by a true and impartial comparison of the work in the several States that we may hope to profit largely by these Conferences. The meetings will be of permanent benefit just in so far as such comparisons are made possible through verbal or written reports. Written reports are of course preferable, as they give the amplest opportunity for investigation. *Comparison and discontent are the parents of reform.* They go hand in hand. One without the other is unprofitable. Whatever progress is made must come through a union of the two. However much or often we may compare our work with that of others, what will it profit us if at the same time we fail to arouse that feeling of dissatisfaction or discontent with existing methods or results which may lead to renewed and determined effort? On the other hand, what real good can result from discontent alone? Discontent will not show us our mistakes, teach us better methods, direct us in new paths, or keep us in the line of progress. This result will come about only when we can compare our experience with that of others, avoiding their mistakes and profiting by their successes.

The importance of statistics and other facts dealing with the annual expenditure of many millions of dollars and affecting the whole social policy of more than sixty-five millions of people may scarcely be exaggerated. They are certainly more important than many of the questions that now receive the careful attention of the national government, all available information in regard to which is collected, printed, and distributed at government expense. And, if this is true,— and it can scarcely be denied,— are not these problems in social reform entitled to receive from it the most careful consideration?

The aggregate population of the States reported is 42,918,466. No reports have been received from Arizona, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Oregon, Vermont, and Virginia.

A special effort was made to secure statistics of prisoners in county jails, with a view to laying before this Conference the question of jail labor. The effort was not entirely unrewarded, although the jail statistics are as incomplete as usual. They can never be anything else so long as there are States in which there is no agency for their collection,— States where it is doubtful if any official or citizen could give the number of jails or the number of

prisoners, and much more doubtful if there is any one at all familiar with the condition either of jail or prisoner. It was shown, however, that there is no State where the question of providing some occupation for jail prisoners has met with serious consideration with the exception of several of the smaller Eastern States, where in most instances the county jail serves the purpose of a State prison. The jail population of the United States is enormous. The two great curses of the present jail system are the association of the prisoners and the lack of employment. A man or woman of strong character might *possibly* escape the evil effects of three or six months' idle association with prisoners in a county jail, comparatively few of which make separation or classification possible. But a man or woman dependent on daily toil for daily bread is in no physical condition for hard work after such a confinement in the ordinary jail. The question of jail labor is referred to the Conference for discussion.

Alabama. *Population*, 1,600,000.

The admirable report made by Miss Tutweiler for the Chicago Conference last year is fresh in the minds of the members of the Conference. There is little of additional interest to report.

County and State prisoners are still hired to contractors. The new system which is being adopted will change this.

The number of jail prisoners is unknown. The number of jails is sixty. There is no labor performed in these institutions.

There is no separate provision made for juvenile delinquents. The new convict code contemplates the erection of reformatories.

There are no workhouses in the State.

There is a lack of room at the State Hospital for the Insane. It is hoped that the next legislature will provide another State hospital for the chronic cases. The work with children is being done by the churches. The State does nothing for dependent children.

General Information. — The new convict system is to be gradually put into operation. A beginning has been made by the purchase of land and the erection of buildings at Spigner's Station. Just as soon as a sufficient amount of money has accumulated from the hire of convicts to warrant the State in so doing, all convicts will be removed from the mines, and placed under the direct care of the

State. There will be a separate prison for women, and another for boys. Careful training will be provided, both intellectual and moral. The preparations for this work are going on steadily at Spigner's.

It is also the design of the commissioners to keep colored and white prisoners in separate buildings,— a very desirable change. It is much to be desired that court-yards should be added to every jail, in order that those awaiting trial shall not be ruined in health by their close confinement, as at present; also that some employment should be provided for them, and their earnings used to support their families; also that moral and intellectual instruction should be provided for them. Many of the jails need better sanitary arrangements. An insane hospital for chronic cases is needed, also a home for epileptics, and a home for the feeble-minded.

The following letter, written by Sam Will John, an attorney of Birmingham, and addressed to a committee of miners, will serve to give a good idea of the present condition of the prison question in Alabama: —

Gentlemen,— In response to your inquiry, "What has been done by the managers of convicts to take the convicts out of the mines in Jefferson County?" I am pleased to give you the following answer, which, while it is not as satisfactory to me as I would like, yet I think shows that much has been accomplished, and that very much more may be accomplished by persevering in the way in which the managers have started.

You will bear in mind that, when the managers of convicts held their first meeting, March 1, 1893, the State had the old penitentiary at Wetumpka as the only prison in which to confine convicts. This prison, built over fifty years ago, was badly arranged, and had only 208 cells, which were so small and badly ventilated as to be unfit to confine a human being in, especially in warm weather. It had neither adequate water supply nor sewer, neither power to use it as a manufacturing prison, nor land to till.

In this dilemma the State had leased, before the managers came into office, some fertile lands near Fort Jackson, and constructed there a small log prison, so as to use the ablest of the convicts then confined in the penitentiary in raising corn and some cotton.

The managers found in the penitentiary and at Fort Jackson 233 convicts, and leased out over 1,000. The convicts in the penitentiary were composed chiefly of the aged, infirm, permanently diseased, maimed, blind, boys, and women, who were and are able to produce, if they had good land near the penitentiary to till, the food they eat; and while the total cost of maintenance for a year per

convict has been about $90.48, a very low figure, yet there remained, in excess of what they could produce, probably $15,000 or more, which had to be provided from the labor of the convicts leased out.

In addition to this heavy demand there was saddled on the convict fund the payment of about $5,000 per month court costs of conviction,— a burden that is not put on the convict system in any State within my knowledge, and a burden which does not properly belong to any penitentiary system, any more than the salaries paid judges of criminal courts and solicitors or the pay of grand and petit juries trying criminal cases.

At the very beginning of their Herculean task the managers realized that they would have to supply the penitentiary with water and sanitary sewers, and buy land enough suitably located on which to build prisons and workshops, and proceed as rapidly as possible to build these necessary buildings, in which to confine and work the convicts leased out.

As about eighty-five per cent. of all criminals convicted in Alabama are negroes, many of them for short terms and many of them unfit to do any kind of work except farm labor, it was necessary to so locate the prison and workshops as to have good farming lands around them, so that the convicts worked on the farm might be able to raise all the food consumed by those engaged in manufacturing. That the best place in the State for this peculiarly combined purpose might be found and secured, the managers advertised in the leading papers of the State for offers, and received very full descriptions of over one hundred pieces of property. These were carefully considered; and the most promising of them were examined by experts and by the managers, with the result that near Spigner's Station on the L. & N. R.R. in Elmore County, fifteen miles by rail north of Montgomery City, was considered the best location in the State, as the lands are fairly fertile, lie on a high, comparatively level plateau 140 feet above the level of Montgomery, with an abundance of good water, timber, and clay, with two swift-flowing creeks running through this plateau, furnishing an easy mode of draining all prisons, hospitals, and shops that may ever be erected there; and at the same time these creeks will furnish at a minimum cost power to pump the water needed for domestic and sanitary purposes in the prisons and to light them with electricity. Here the managers bought 3,500 acres of land lying on both sides of the L. & N. Road, and a part of it extending to the Coosa River, where Dam 27 is to be built by the federal government; and, when built, the State can cheaply provide for the utilization of the immense power generated by the whole volume of water in the Coosa River, falling fourteen feet. And, best of all, it is in one of the healthiest sections of the State. After the managers had begun to buy these lands and before any of them could be paid for, the financial crisis so straitened the fiscal operations of the State as to retard very greatly the carrying out of this plan.

Notwithstanding this great barrier to progress, by the very efficient and skilful help of Governor Jones the managers somehow moved along, and have had three temporary wooden prisons with the necessary adjunct buildings put up on the land near Spigner, and have had about 1,200 acres cleared, ditched, fenced, and ploughed and planted, and have also arranged for making 30,000 brick per day so soon as the weather will allow, with the intention of using these brick in building permanent prisons and workshops of sufficient capacity to confine and work all convicts. Owing to the wide-spread disaster caused by forcing the country at one step to an all-gold basis, one of the lessees had to surrender his convicts on the 1st of December, 1893, and another's lease expired on the 1st of March, 1894, so that now the State is working on its own account over 600 convicts.

But for the operation of the present law, as detailed above, at least 350 of these convicts would now be working in the mines in Jefferson County, so that, while the managers have not been able to *remove* but a few mechanics from the mines, they have managed to keep out 350 who would otherwise be at work in the mines. If the making of brick and building of prisons is not interrupted, there is no reason why the State should not be able to take all of its convicts into its own custody, out of the hands of lessees, within a reasonable time; and this would be a short time if the convict fund were relieved of paying a part of the cost of administering justice.

When you remember that all of this land has been bought and nearly paid for, and the penitentiary proper maintained and furnished with water and sewers, and buildings sufficient to confine 300 convicts have been built and paid for, without costing the State one dollar of tax money, I think you will agree with me that a great deal has been done toward removing the convicts from the mines; and I do not risk much in saying that very much more will be done during this year to this very desirable end.

(Signed) Very respectfully,
SAM WILL JOHN.

ALASKA TERRITORY. *Population (estimated)*, 35,000.

Sheldon Jackson, United States General Agent of Education for the Territory, reports: —

We have no organized charities whatever, and there are only two places in all Alaska where there are any number of white people; and in those places there are no organized charities. If a husband is killed by accident, drowning, or otherwise, and the widow is left in destitute circumstances, usually individuals supply her immediate wants until she can be sent to her friends. We have no

penal institutions other than local jails. Alaska is as undeveloped a region as any portion of Africa or Siberia, and with the exception of two or three places, occupied by an uncivilized people. You will see, therefore, that the purposes of your society have at present very little show in that region. The United States government has a jail at Sitka for certain classes of criminals. Nothing is being done for the poor natives except by the missionary societies of the churches and the government schools. There are a few blind children, but nothing is being done for them. There is now a bill before Congress to secure a better code of laws for Alaska, and a better organization of the government.

California. *Population*, 1,208,130.

California has no Board of State Charities. The total appropriation made by the State for all institutions for the last fiscal year was $2,428,237.68. State care is provided for insane, feeble-minded, epileptics, deaf and dumb, blind, and juvenile delinquents.

The State allows $100 for each full orphan and $75 for each half-orphan supported in private institutions. Last year aid was granted in this manner to about 800 children.

State convicts are worked in quarries and in the jute works. There is no labor performed in the county jails by prisoners.

Canada, Manitoba. *Population* (*estimated*), 200,000.

The insane, paupers, criminals, and other dependent classes are under the direct control and management of the Provincial Government.

There are three prisons. The number of inmates for the year 1893 was 423. The cost of keeping, including salaries, was $13,523.88. The total value of earnings was $1,200.

There are no county jails or city prisons.

There is a reformatory for women, but none for men. A reformatory was built three years ago, and kept open for one year. Only one boy was committed.

The insane population under State care numbers 170; epileptics 20; imbeciles, 30; deaf and dumb, 40.

There are two children's homes, maintained one by the Protestant and one by the Catholic churches. Each home receives a grant of $500 per annum from the government. 40 children were placed in homes last year from the Protestant Home.

There are also four general hospitals in the Province, managed by a board of management elected every year by the governors of the hospitals. Governors are those who become life members or life governors by paying a certain sum to the hospital during the year. There have been admitted to the hospitals in the province 2,690 patients. The cost per day of the patients last year was 95 cents. The Provincial Government gives a grant to each hospital of 37½ cents per day for each day spent in the hospital for patients who are under medical treatment. The balance of the cash of the hospital is paid by the generous public.

The Children's Homes, both Protestant and Catholic, receive grants from the government, also the Women's Home; and all are under the inspection of the Government Inspector of Public Institutions.

Canada, Ontario. *Population*, 2,120,000.

There are government inspectors of lunatic asylums, prisons, hospitals, refuges, etc., also a superintendent of neglected and dependent children.

The Government Inspector of Prisons and Asylums receives reports from the provincial and municipal institutions. There is no report received, however, of moneys spent on relief of the poor by the municipalities.

The insane, idiotic, deaf and dumb, and blind are maintained by the government except in the cases of those who are able to pay. County poorhouses are supported by the municipalities, and the cost of prisoners is borne partly by the counties and partly by the government.

There are forty-two jails and thirteen lock-ups.

The only labor performed in county jails is cutting wood, breaking stone, and assisting in taking care of the building.

There is a Reformatory for Boys, also one for women.

The Dominion Parliament has legislation at present under consideration, making compulsory the separate trial and confinement of all youthful offenders, and giving powers to courts to hand over to a philanthropic agency instead of committing to jail.

In Ontario there is a central prison or workhouse for prisoners sentenced for a less period than two years. Average number in prison, 332. Total maintenance, $60,000. Earnings, $8,000.

The whole number of insane of all classes, 4,340. Current expenses for the year, including salaries (not including new buildings), $509,206.31. The whole number are under State care.

A system has been recently adopted by the Ontario legislature of State supervision, providing for the placing of all dependent children in family homes. Orphanages and other institutions have been largely used in the past. The placing out of dependent children by a provincial officer has only been commenced during the past few months. This work is under the direction and supervision of a government official known as the superintendent of neglected and dependent children of Ontario. Children's aid societies exist in cities and leading towns. They receive legal guardianship of dependent children, and place them in private families.

Relief of the poor is wholly in the hands of the municipalities, and no report is made to any central agency or authority.

General Information. — During the past year a very comprehensive "Act for the Better Protection of Children" has become a law in Ontario. There is a superintendent for the Province, appointed by the government. He has charge of all placed-out children. County visitors are appointed, and local children's aid societies are organized, and municipal shelters are established. These societies are given a legal status, and can rescue children from cruel guardians.

The Prisoners' Aid Association of Canada is asking the Dominion Government for the establishment of a reformatory for young men on the indeterminate sentence and parole system, and making provision for the separate trial and separate custody of all children under arrest. The Provincial Government has been asked to establish one or more industrial reformatories for habitual drunkards, and to reorganize the Reform School for Boys.

The association is asking the County Councils to make better provision for the employment and classification of prisoners in the county jails and for the establishment of almshouses where needed. A number of counties have already done so, and others are taking the necessary steps for so doing.

Colorado. *Population*, 412,198.

In November of 1893 the State Board of Charities and Correction made a tour of inspection to each institution in the State; and

at some of the points where the institutions are located public meetings were held, in which the local officials, citizens, and members of the Board participated. These meetings brought the attention of the public to the work and the importance of the Board, and aroused a more general interest in the work.

There has been organized in the State a Conference of Charities and Correction. The first meeting was held in Denver in March of the present year. A permanent organization was effected, with the officers of the State Board as the permanent officers of the society. A committee was appointed to organize a prisoners' aid society. The Conference recommended that the institutions of the State be taken out of the control of politicians and that they be placed under the management of a single board; that the State establish a public home for dependent and neglected children; also the establishment of an industrial school for girls, and a school for feeble-minded youth.

Connecticut. *Population*, 795,682.

Has a State Board of Charities. There is a State Board of Pardons, with jurisdiction over commutation and remission of penalties. Question: Are reports received at the State capitol, or by some central agency, of the amounts of money expended by the different public authorities, State, county, or municipal, for the poor, defective and delinquent, for the supervision of immigrants, or for other charitable or correctional uses? If so, by whom?

Theoretically, and by statute law, Yes, to the Board of Charities. Practically, No, since there is no penalty for violation of the law. The Board collects facts as best it may, having only the power of inspection. Reports are printed biennially. The county commissioners report concerning jails and liquor licenses to the Treasurer of State, and he collects and publishes the results annually. He also publishes annually, by statutory direction, the Connecticut "State Register and Manual." Its information is valuable, but chiefly political and economical. It has no statistics of charities or corrections.

Workhouses.—Town almshouses are sometimes also workhouses. The jail is the county workhouse, and the county commissioners have the same relation to them as the selectmen to the town work-

houses. The State provides for poor persons having no legal settlement in towns, but only for a maximum period of six months after which they are returned to the town from which they came. Each town pays $2.56 per week for each insane pauper, and a similar amount for imbeciles. The State pays the balance. In the Hospital for Insane and in the School for Imbeciles the State allows $2.50 per week for each inmate. For each deaf and dumb person $175 per year is allowed by the State at the American Asylum. The State appropriates a maximum of $330 per year for each blind person's education. There is one State prison, and an Industrial School for Girls and a Reform School for Boys. In each of the eight counties there is a "home for neglected or abused children who have been taken from their parents by legal process."

The total number of prisoners in State prison for 1893 was 559. The whole cost of keeping, including salaries for two years, was $86,515.08. The total value of earnings for two years was $71,552.01. Convicts are worked under the contract system. The contractors (manufacturers of boots and shoes) pay 50 cents per day per convict. The number of county jails or prisons is eight. The total number of inmates for 1893, 8,890. The cost of keeping, $116,243.57. Returns from earnings of prisoners, $9,880.56. Returns from sales at jails, $1,695.47. The work performed is chair-seating and similar work.

The whole number of insane of all classes, 2,426. Current expenses for the year, including salaries (not including new buildings), $220,160.26.

Children.— None over two years old are kept in almshouses.

General Information.— In January, 1893, a Board of Education for the Blind was created. At the same session of the General Assembly a bill for the creation of a reformatory for men and women was favorably reported by the Judiciary Committee, and ordered to be printed with the laws of the session, and to lie over to the next session.

Delaware. *Population*, 166,493.

The philanthropies are chiefly located in Wilmington or its vicinity, and are under private management, although several are recipients of county and State aid. Delaware has but one State institu-

tion, the Delaware State Hospital at Farmhurst. The building, while modern and commodious, is inadequate to meet the demands made upon it. There is no State penitentiary, but in each of the three counties there is a jail and an almshouse. There is no jail labor performed except in the Newcastle jail, where stone-breaking for vagrants and drunken convicts is done. In the city of Wilmington, through the influence of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and the Associated Charities, two police matrons have been appointed.

District of Columbia. *Population*, 265,000 (estimated).

The report received from the District of Columbia was made up entirely of statistics. It is impossible to give it in detail.

The total number of institutions reported as coming under the supervision of the Superintendent of Charities is twenty-four (24). The total appropriations made by the general government for these various institutions for the year was $336,041. The aggregate number of inmates remaining at the close of the year was about 2,272. The value of the property occupied by these institutions, and including that of other charitable societies not receiving public aid, will approximate $3,000,000. Of the fifty-seven charitable institutions of various classes within the District, twenty-eight of them receive no government or municipal aid whatever.

Idaho. *Population*, 84,385.

Has no State agency for the supervision of its charities. Has a State prison at Boise City. Average number of inmates, 94. Whole cost of keeping for 1893 was $22,554.14. Value of earnings, none. The convicts are not worked.

"The reform most needed, in my opinion," writes the Corresponding Secretary, "is to have the dependent classes taught to work and how to get a living."

Indiana. *Population*, 2,192,404.

The Board of State Charities was organized under the State law in 1889. The statistics of all classes of dependants are very complete, as is invariably the case where these boards are in operation.

Two serious evils in the care of the dependent classes demand correction: —

First, the system by which township overseers of the poor administer outdoor relief. This is done usually with little attempt at discrimination. One-half a million of dollars is annually expended by these officers for outdoor relief. Most of it is worse than wasted, because it not only fails to diminish the total of dependence, but creates pauperism. This is a familiar old story, but it is very much to the point in Indiana.

The second evil referred to is the lack of humane and effective means of removing dependent children from poorhouses and orphanages, and placing them in good private homes. Under present conditions the institutions are crowded with children growing up to lives of adult dependence or with tendencies in that direction.

Indian Territory.

The population of the Indian Territory is given at 350,000, of which number it is estimated that only 50,000 are Indians.

In none of the civilized tribes (who control Indian Territory) are there any boards or commissioners to deal with crime, insanity, pauperism, or dependence.

There is no public recognition of the claims of the poor. These must depend on private charity. In the Cherokee nation is an insane asylum, where the blind and insane are kept. The total number of insane last year was five; blind, four. There are three United States jails.

General Information.— The one great need in Indian Territory at this time is the introduction of new methods of government, the abolition of tribal privileges, the organization of a State or Territory with legislative powers, and the conferring of voice in government on all white citizens of the United States who may be regularly resident in the Territory. Until Indian control is ended, intelligent handling of social questions cannot be expected.

Iowa. *Population*, 2,000,000.

The greatest need of the State is a State Board of Charities. A bill for this was presented to the legislature during the last session; but it was met with indifference, and laid upon the table. Bills to create county boards of guardians for children, to punish heads of families

who refuse to support their families, to amend the tramp law, and authorize county boards of supervisors to send habitual drunkards to a Keeley institute at the county expense, all failed to pass. A bill authorizing the trustees of the Industrial Schools to release the inmates on parole was passed. Another insane hospital is in contemplation, and when completed will enable the State to care for all its insane.

The chairman of the county board of supervisors of Des Moines County, a man heartily in sympathy with the progressive movements of the day, says, "It is my conviction that, had we not had the dull season last fall and during the winter, we would show a decrease both of criminals and paupers, as gradually the system and workings of charity organization will show their good effects all over the State."

The Charity Organization of Des Moines, which had ceased work, revived last winter.

The work of the Children's Home Society is increasing largely. One most needed reform (after the creation of a State Board of Charities) is better accommodation for the feeble-minded. The census of 1890 showed 3,319 imbeciles in Iowa; yet only one institution provides for not more than 450.

Kansas. *Population*, 1,427,096.

The so-called Board of State Charities of Kansas is a board of trustees for State charitable institutions, and is a general in place of the originally local boards of trustees for the several institutions.

No reports are received at the State capitol that are reliable. Provision is made for them to come through the Secretary of Agriculture, and township officers are required by law to make these reports; but they are very meagre and of doubtful value.

The State convicts are worked at mining coal under the contract system.

Louisiana. *Population*, 1,200,000.

There is no Board of State Charities. The New Orleans Prisoners' Association has supervisory powers only. The State makes provision for the insane, deaf and dumb, and blind. No statistics of the poor are obtainable. The great number of institutions, penal, reformatory, and benevolent, in and about New Orleans, are mostly

supported by private charities, although the city makes appropriations for some of them.

The lease system still exists in the penitentiary. There is no work performed by prisoners in county jails. There are twenty orphan asylums in the city of New Orleans, providing shelter for 2,000 orphans. The Secretary reports: "In the history of the last twenty years' work in Eastern, Northern, and Western States I see that good results have been obtained by the aid of a few good workers. And I do not see the reason why the same work should not produce equal results in our section.

"The people of our State are kind-hearted and charitable. We need only some good workers to spread the ideas of this enlightened age, and the co-operation of some men in power to encourage legislation favorable to the improvement in prison management, and leading to the reformation of delinquent children."

Maine. *Population*, 661,086.

Has no Board of State Charities. There are no reports received from any institutions except those under State control.

State prison criminals are supported by the State. Prisoners in county jails are supported by the county. Prisoners in houses of correction and supported by municipalities. In case of juvenile delinquents, boys are sent to Reform School, girls to Industrial School. Towns sending them pay to State fifty to seventy-five cents per week, the State supporting them further. Workhouse prisoners same as in house of corrrection. Insane are supported in hospital by legislative appropriation, by the own funds of some patients, and by the State paying for other patients; but the larger portion receive State aid of $1.50 per week, towns or individuals paying the balance. Imbeciles, when cared for outside almshouses, are sent to Massachusetts School for Feeble-minded, and paid for by the State. The deaf and dumb receive free instruction at State School for Deaf-mutes at Portland. Some of the latter are sent to the school at Hartford, Conn. The State making no appropriation for dependent children, each town has to care for such children as are not cared for by various charities. Such children, however, are few in Maine.

In most of the jails, of which there are fourteen, no work is done.

Brooms and firewood are manufactured in some, and shoe soles pasted in others, and heels made.

During the last year there has been an increased interest manifested in the care of dependent children. The tendency to make institutions more on the family plan, and the family very small, and also to place children in homes by adoption, is growing. The establishment of a reformatory prison for women, in order that those now sent for short terms to county jails may have a better chance to reform than they have now, and a State Board of Charities, are two important needs of the State to-day.

Maryland. *Population*, 1,042,390.

Maryland has no Board of State Charities. There is a Lunacy Commission and a Board of Health. The latter has visitorial powers, and reports on the call of the legislature or the executive. There is a Prisoners' Aid Association, a private organization, with authority to visit all prisons. The State maintains a penitentiary, house of correction, a school for deaf-mutes, a school for feeble-minded youths, and schools for the blind, white and colored. There is an insane hospital which derives its chief support from the State. The counties maintain jails and almshouses, and several have small insane hospitals.

In 1893 the State expended on account of its charities $305,250; the city of Baltimore, $398,825; the counties, about $230,000.

General Information.— The Lunacy Commission and others interested in the care of insane have kept before the public the need of sufficient accommodation in State hospitals to care for all indigent insane. The last legislature adjourned without action, except to give permission to another county to erect a county asylum, which is a step in the wrong direction.

The Prisoners' Aid Society and others interested in this cause have secured from the legislature an act for "suspension of sentences in certain cases."

The legislature has enacted a law to abolish the "sweating system," to prohibit the worst features of child labor, and (after some uncertainty and a subsequent uprising of public sentiment) to forbid in Maryland any regular pool-selling system connected with race-tracks.

In Baltimore last fall, although the weather continued mild, the number of lodgers in the police stations had so increased in number that the police board requested a conference of officers of leading charitable and business organizations to provide sufficient shelter for all homeless men, with a work test. The conference known as the "Central Relief Committee" opened a wayfaring lodge, in addition to the existing "Friendly Inn." The station-houses were closed to lodgers. Excellent results followed. There was a decrease in begging and vagrancy. One county has been working its tramp prisoners on repairs at the jail and on the roads, and the legislature has enacted laws to regulate prison labor in two other counties. The idea of work instead of idleness, for the good of both the public and the prisoners or dependent, is spreading in the community; and the great city almshouse in Baltimore is trying to arrange for work for all its able-bodied inmates, many of whom in winter are tramps from without the State.

There is also an act for the payment of a specified sum by city or county for the treatment of indigent habitual drunkards who may be willing to enter institutions in Maryland for the cure of dipsomania, under order of the courts.

Massachusetts. *Population*, 2,450,000.

The report from Massachusetts, in the completeness of its statistics, is one evidence of the value of a Board of State Charities. The first of such boards was established in this State in 1864.

State prisoners are worked on public account and on the piece price plan.

The total cost of maintaining the three prisons during the year 1893 was $428,773.53. The total value of earnings was but $67,562.45.

The number of jails is twenty-one. The labor of county prisoners consists in the manufacture of boots and shoes, clothing, cane-seating chairs, harness and mat making.

There is no special provision for epileptics. An asylum for their care will soon be built.

The total number of children for the year under public care was 2,580, of whom 414 were in poorhouses. Children are placed in private homes as soon as possible. 475 were so placed last year by the State Board of Lunacy and Charity.

MICHIGAN. *Estimated population*, 2,093,889.

Has a State Board of Charities and Correction, having advisory supervision of State and county penal reformatories and charitable institutions; also a State Board of Health.

Reports from the State institutions to the Auditor-General are made monthly, from county institutions to the Secretary of State annually, quarterly reports from insane asylums and annual reports from poorhouses to the State Board of Charities and Correction.

The insane in the State asylum are supported by their respective counties for two years, and then transferred to State support. Such as have no legal settlement are supported from the first by the State. Jails and poorhouses are constructed and maintained by the respective counties. There are a few exceptions, however, to the county support of inmates in poorhouses, a few counties having the township system. The law provides that either may be adopted, the matter being left with county boards of supervisors. Lock-ups are supported by the cities in which they are located, and Detroit maintains a house of correction. Other counties may send their prisoners to this institution. Prisons and reformatories for juvenile offenders are maintained entirely by the State, as are also the State Public School, School for the Blind, and School for the Deaf. Except in the case of the last-named, the expense of clothing patients is charged back to the counties.

There are four State prisons. The number of inmates for the year 1893 was 5,537, the average number being 2,029. The whole cost of keeping, including salaries, was $373,263.68. Total value of earnings, $276,286.60.

Some of the convicts are employed on contract work, and some on State account.

The number of county jails or prisons is eighty. The number of inmates for 1893 was 14,753. The cost of keeping, $159,950. There is no labor performed.

The Michigan legislature of 1893 passed an act making provision for the establishing of the "Michigan Home for the Feeble-minded and Epileptic." The sum of $50,000, or so much thereof as may be needed for the payment on contracts provided for in Section 7 of this act during the year 1893, was appropriated from

the State treasury, the general supervision and government to be vested in a Board of Control of three members, appointed by the governor with consent of the Senate, to hold office two, four, and six years respectively.

The site for this institution has been selected at Lapeer, and the plans adopted are what is called the "cottage plan." The work will proceed as rapidly as practicable under the provisions of the act.

All feeble-minded and epileptic persons between the ages of six and twenty-one years, who are legal residents of Michigan, may be admitted to said Home without charge for tuition, boarding, lodging, washing, medicine, or medical attendance. In the selection of inmates preference shall be given to indigent or pauper orphans; and, when this class is provided for, such others may be admitted for whom application may be made, and as accommodations may be provided for from time to time by sufficient buildings.

The object of this instition is to provide by all proper and feasible means the intellectual, moral, and physical training of these unfortunates, to reclaim them from their unhappy condition, and fit them as far as possible for future usefulness in society.

The same legislature also passed an act providing for an additional asylum for the insane, to be located in the Upper Peninsula.

The members of the State Board of Charities and Correction were made a committee for selecting the site for this new asylum. The commissioners were permitted to receive donations in a healthy locality and an easily accessible part of the Upper Peninsula of a tract of land not less than 400 acres, capable of being easily supplied with sufficient quantity of living water for all purposes of such an institution, and also to furnish proper facilities for drainage.

The asylum was located at Newberry. The entire cost of the asylum, which is to be built on the cottage plan, is not to exceed, when fully completed, roads, fences, and out-buildings, the sum of $75,000.

The Michigan legislature of 1893 revised and amended the laws controlling the penal institutions, embodying several provisions which are an advance over the old law.

The control is vested in a board for each prison, which board shall serve without compensation.

The term of the warden is not limited to a specified number of

years, but he "shall hold office during the pleasure of the board." This change in the law places the warden on the same footing regarding the duration of his term with the chief officers in all other State institutions; and "he shall only be removed for cause after an opportunity shall be given him to be heard upon written charges."

The classification of prisoners in each prison is provided for. These shall be placed in one of three grades. In the first grade shall be placed "those appearing to be corrigible or less vicious than the others, and likely to observe the laws and maintain themselves by honest industry after their discharge." In the second grade shall be placed "those appearing to be incorrigible or more vicious, but so competent to work and so reasonably obedient to prison discipline as not seriously to interfere with the productiveness of their labor or of the labor with those in company with whom they may be employed." In the third grade shall be placed "those appearing to be incorrigible, or so insubordinate or so incompetent as to seriously interfere with the discipline for productiveness of the labor of the prison." The board is required to make rules for the separation and classification of prisoners, and for their promotion and reduction from one grade to another, and shall adopt such as shall conduce to the reformation of the prisoner.

The transfer of prisoners from one prison to another is provided for through the action of the advisory board of pardon, which board is required to visit each prison as often as once every three months for the purpose of examining cases for transfer; and, if such board find that it is "material that transfer should be made, such board shall report such fact fully to the governor, who is hereby empowered to transfer prisoners from one prison to another."

In the bill which was introduced to revise the laws governing the prisons there was a section which authorized the warden to place to the credit of each prisoner such amount of the earnings of the prison as the board might determine upon, limiting such credit to 10 cents a day; and it was provided that the funds thus accruing to the credit of the prisoner might be paid to him or his family, or to the person or the family of the person wronged by him, except that at least 25 per cent. of the amount should be kept for and paid to the prisoner at the time of his release. It was thought that such a provision would stimulate to industry when released, or provide

for restitution by the offender, or the support of families, many of which are now thrown upon the public for support, and would secure a little something for the prisoner to begin life upon, when again at liberty. The objection was made in the Senate that such a provision of law was a bid for criminality, and the section was stricken out.

There was also in the bill a provision whereby the labor in the prison might gradually be done on "State account," — a system which is conceded by the most advanced penologists the best on which to work convicts. The objection was made by one of the honorable senators that labor under contractors in prisons competed much less with free labor than when conducted by the officers of the prison on State account, and on the strength of such argument the section was stricken out.

By another section of the bill, which was also stricken out, the total number of prisoners employed at one time in manufacturing one kind of goods, which were manufactured elsewhere in the State, was limited to 5 per cent. of all persons within the State employed in manufacturing the same kind of goods.

Minnesota. *Population*, 1,440,000.

Minnesota has a Board of State Charities.

The State Conference of Charities and Correction organized in April, 1893, held a second successful session in January, 1894, and has become one of the permanent institutions of the State.

Within the last two years the principle of charity organization has been put into effect in the city of St. Paul upon an elaborate scale. Nearly all the various public and private charitable organizations and institutions have leagued themselves together under the name of "The Associated Charities." The management of the Associated Charities is vested in a board of direction composed of representatives elected as delegates by the various constituent organizations. The president of the Associated Charities is Rev. Hastings H. Hart. The recorder is John W. Willis. Investigations are made of the character and condition of all persons applying for charitable relief by an agent of the Associated Charities, who is officially designated the general secretary. No relief is given directly by the Associated Charities, but that organization registers all applications

made to any charitable society, and makes investigations of the persons applying, so as to discriminate between worthy and unworthy applicants, and to direct charitable relief into proper channels. The registry of the Associated Charities now includes about 4,000 separate cases. The funds necessary for the support of the organization are partly contributed by the constituent societies and partly raised by a subscription among the citizens of St. Paul. Under the auspices of the Associated Charities a great many "parlor conferences" have been held, at which subjects connected with the administration of charity and the prosecution of social reform have been elucidated by the reading of formal papers and the interchange of views through a general discussion. The tone and spirit of charitable work in the city of St. Paul are most excellent, and the Associated Charities have contributed largely toward the advancement of the cause of charity reform.

MONTANA. *Population*, 140,000.

In March, 1893, a law was passed in Montana creating a Board of State Charities.

The Secretary of the Board, Mrs. Laura E. Howey, writes: —

HELENA, MONT., April 24, 1894.

Hon. JOSEPH P. BYERS:

Dear Sir,— I cannot tell you how mortified we are at not being able to secure a better return; but we are so hampered for means. The governor has not got the blanks we requested three months ago, and we can only hope to do better next year. As members of the Board, we are visiting and thoroughly examining county and city jails and poorhouses at our own expense. We find little or no thought given to the necessity of separate cells for boys and women. Several *underground* jails we have discovered. There is great need of such a Board, and not a bit too soon has it been inaugurated.

Very respectfully, LAURA E. HOWEY.

General Information.— The Board has been in existence about a year or less. Although an appropriation of $1,000 passed with the bill creating the Board, March, 1893, yet no funds have been available, as it was the last in session to pass. The visitations of the several members of the Board have been made at their personal expense.

The contract system in the care of all criminal, defective, and dependent classes in county and State has been universal in Montana in the past. It has, however, been abandoned recently in two counties and two recently organized institutions. The Reform School at Miles City, and School for Deaf and Dumb and Blind at Boulder, are managed directly by the State. The State Board of Charities and Reform has urged the abolition of the contract system in the strongest terms; and it is hoped that favorable action in this direction will soon be taken, as it is the one great reform most needed in this department at present.

Nebraska. *Population*, 1,056,793.

There is no Board of State Charities in Nebraska. The Board of Public Lands and Buildings has general supervision of the twelve State institutions. The governor has, for the first time, required each State institution to make a report of moneys expended and other facts, and is now collecting said information.

The plan recently adopted in Nebraska is that the State shall wholly provide for the care of all inmates of the State institutions. No counties are specially taxed to help meet expenses in taking care of the insane and other dependent classes. The State meets the whole of it.

In Nebraska the contract system obtains in the labor of prisoners. The State pays 40 cents per capita, and the contractor makes large profits on their labor. Prisoners in county jails are kept in idleness, which has proved to be demoralizing, and which has led some to seek admission to the jails through petty crimes in the winter season.

The Secretary says in concluding his report, "I think a Board of State Charities is most needed, and I hope a bill will pass the next legislature providing for the same."

Nevada. *Population*, 45,000.

Has not a State Board of Charities, but has a Board of Commissioners for the Insane, a Board of Prison Commissioners, a Board of Pardons, and a Board of Health.

Reports from all State institutions are received by the governor.

County statistics are not collected. State prisoners are employed in quarrying stone and in making boots and shoes. There is a State Orphans' home in Nevada. Last year 65 children were cared for. They leave the home at the age of eighteen, if not previously adopted by some family. Employment is secured for them. One pupil is now being educated in the State University.

New Hampshire. *Population*, 400,000.

During the past year a new building for the care of the poor insane was erected in Cook County.

There was no legislation for the improvement of the condition of the dependent classes at the last session of the legislature, although strenuous efforts were made in that direction. It is probable that at the next session an attempt will be made to place the indigent and pauper insane wholly under State supervision. Among the reforms most needed are State custody of the insane and a workhouse for the criminal class entirely independent of the county almshouses.

The New Hampshire Orphans' Home, comprising several buildings and a large farm (the early home of Daniel Webster and his summer home until he died), has a permanent fund of over $60,000, with room for the accommodation of over 150 children. This institution has been organized and equipped by generous citizens of the State without State aid. A law has recently been enacted allowing authorities to remove children from almshouses and place them in a children's home.

New Jersey. *Population*, 1,444,933.

Owing to the clash of contending Senates, the legislation that had been projected in regard to the care of the dependent classes failed of enactment. Most of the reforms needed are a lunacy commission to whom special supervision of the Insane Asylum should be committed, female physicians in the asylum for the insane to care for those of their own sex, and legislation prohibiting the retention of children in almshouses. The State Charities Aid Association is desirous that laws shall be passed authorizing the members of the society to visit and investigate all of the State institutions. This authority they once possessed, but were deprived of it by the politicians. A hospital for epileptics is also needed.

New York.

The report to the Conference for last year, prepared by Miss Hoag, was a voluminous one, and covered all the points, so far as practicable, required by your circular. The only changes that could be made would be to substitute the figures of 1893 for those of 1892, which do not materially vary. The general policy of the State regarding its insane, the care of children, etc., as set forth in the report of last year, are still in force. A bill for the establishment of a colony for epileptics is now in both houses of the legislature, and likely to pass and receive the signature of the governor. No new institutions of any importance have been established during the year. The State appropriations for the insane and for other charitable and reformatory purposes have been made by the legislature, and will doubtless be adequate for these various purposes.

North Carolina. *Population*, 1,617,947.

There is an increase in the dependent and delinquent population of the State since the last report. But, notwithstanding the hard times, the people of North Carolina have done more for the helpless and suffering than in any year previous.

The State convicts are nearly all worked on a farm leased for that purpose. The products of their labor are almost sufficient to maintain the institution. In a few counties the convicts are worked on public roads in the country. There is no reformatory school for boys or girls. There have been improvements in the institutions for the insane, deaf, and blind. There are two homes for orphans that receive State aid: one is for white, and the other for colored children. To the Board of Public Charities of North Carolina is due the credit for the many reforms and improvements noted in the condition of the various institutions of the State.

North Dakota. *Population*, 200,000.

In a State so comparatively new as North Dakota the benevolent, charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions have not as yet assumed such regularity of action as to make full reports obtainable. The State makes provision for the insane, the deaf and dumb, and juvenile delinquents, and State convicts. Under the laws of the

State very much is left to the counties in the care of the several classes of dependants, and it has not been possible to secure detailed reports. The State institutions are new, and have been constructed and are being conducted on the most modern and approved plans, and are giving entire satisfaction.

Ohio. *Population*, 3,800,000.

The total expenditure in Ohio for the support of State and county institutions, including outdoor relief, for the year 1893 was $3,939,139.15. This was exclusive of improvements or new buildings. The total number of persons receiving relief represented by this amount was 149,440.

The new State Hospital for Epileptics was opened on Thanksgiving Day, 1893. This institution, which is built on the cottage system, was incomplete when occupied. Only four cottages were ready for occupancy at the time. Work on the institution is going on, and cottages are being occupied as soon as completed. There were about 200 inmates in the institution on the first of May. The last legislature appropriated money for special cottages for the most dangerous class of epiletic insane. These will be erected at a distance from those already occupied and under construction. The institution is designed for the accommodation of 800 inmates.

A new State Hospital is in process of erection at Massillon, in the north-eastern part of the State. Work on this institution, the Epileptic Hospital, and the State Reformatory, is being delayed by the inability of the legislature to make sufficient appropriations. It is not probable that the State Reformatory will be opened before 1896.

The Fourth Annual Ohio State Conference of Charities and Correction will be held in October. The proceedings of the three preceeding conferences have already been printed in full in the Annual Reports of the Board of State Charities. The new law mentioned in the last report from Ohio, providing for cumulative sentences for all misdemeanants, is in successful operation, and has met with general approval.

The Boards of County Visitors, the total membership of which is over 500, together with the State Conferences, are having a wonderful influence in arousing the interest of the people in regard to the care and treatment of the unfortunates.

There is no Prisoners' Aid Association in the State, and the want of one is sadly felt.

The Children's Home Society was organized in February, 1893; and active work was begun in January of the present year. The object of the society is to find homes for homeless children. Thirty-six children have been placed in homes within the past three months. It is organized on the right lines, and the active work is in the efficient hands of Dr. F. H. Darby. With proper encouragement it will be of vast benefit to the Children's Homes of the State in relieving them of children, too many of whom are apt to remain for too long a time in the homes.

Pennsylvania. *Population*, 5,258,004.

Pennsylvania has a State Board of Public Charities, which appoints a committee on lunacy from among its own members. The board has advisory supervision over all institutions, public and private. The State is now building an asylum for the chronic insane at Warrensville, to cost $500,000 and to accommodate 1,000 inmates; also an asylum for feeble-minded children for the western section of the State at Polk, Venango County, to cost $500,000 and to accommodate from 500 to 800 children, and a blind asylum at Pittsburg. The administration portion of the hospital for insane at Harrisburg is rebuilding, at a cost of $100,000. A building for the deaf and dumb children of very tender age is building in Philadelphia. Several new hospitals and additions to old ones are now being constructed in the State. The most pressing need at the present time is for a home for epileptics. A penitentiary for the criminal insane is also required.

There are three State prisons, operated at a cost of $370,532. Value of earnings, $119,817.82. Convicts are not worked under contract, but by the institutions for the benefit of the State and the convicts.

Rhode Island. *Population*, 360,000.

Rhode Island has a Board of State Charities.

All indigent of every class are well cared for by town or State.

Farming, chair-seating, and shoemaking are carried on in the county prisons.

The vast majority of the paupers are persons who have never secured a legal settlement in this or any other State.

South Carolina. *Population*, 1,150,000.

There is no Board of State Charities or lunacy or prison commission or commissioners. A member of the State Board of Health makes annual sanitary inspection of the three State institutions, penitentiary, deaf and dumb and blind, and insane; but the Board of Health has no general powers over their inmates.

The penitentiary is practically self-supporting. The convicts are employed under the contract system to some extent, but largely employed for State purposes.

Plans are in preparation for opening a reform school for juvenile delinquents (colored) in Lexington County by the Episcopal Church.

South Dakota. *Population*, 400,000.

South Dakota has a Board of State Charities which directly controls the charitable and penal institutions, of which there are four,—an insane hospital, penitentiary, reform school, and school for deaf-mutes.

For each insane person maintained in the State hospital a direct charge of $16 per month, or $192 per year, is made upon the county from which the person is sent.

Convicts in the penitentiary (the average number last year was 85) work at dressing stone. All work done is for State purposes.

In the Reform School the boys are taught farm work and printing; the girls are instructed in sewing and in general domestic affairs.

Tennessee. *Population*, 1,800,000.

Tennessee has no Board of State Charities.

The State supports hospitals for the insane, institutions for the deaf and dumb and blind, and the penitentiary; also pays about one-half of the expenses of the Industrial School. The balance at the latter institution is made up by the counties and cities.

State convicts are worked under the lease system.

No statistics of county or municipal institutions are reported.

TEXAS. *Population*, 2,500,000.

Texas maintains two penitentiaries, a house of correction and reformatory, institutions for the deaf and dumb and blind (two of the latter, one for colored children), three insane hospitals, and an orphans' home.

Some of the State prisoners are hired out on railroads and farms.

There are 227 counties in the State, about 175 of which have county jails. No jail labor is performed.

At the State Orphans' Home the number of inmates is about 200.

UTAH. *Population*, 250,000.

The Territory supports the Insane Asylum, Reform School, and School for Deaf-mutes and Blind. Two counties, Salt Lake and Weber, have poorhouses; and the cities of Salt Lake and Ogden give outdoor relief to the poor to a limited extent. The prisoners in the penitentiary are supported by the government of the United States, and the cities and counties support prisoners in city and county jails.

General Information. — As a result of the Territorial Conference of Charities held last year, the Utah Association of Charities and Correction was organized in the spring of 1893. The association took up, as its work for the first year, the opening of a school for the blind, and an investigation of the condition and management of prisons throughout the Territory. The association petitioned the legislature for an appropriation to establish a school for the blind, and the petition was granted. Provision has been made to open a school for the blind in the same building with the school for the deaf, and under the same management. There are about seventy-five blind children of school age in Utah, and nothing had been done previously for these children. The association will begin this year to work for the establishment of a home for the feeble-minded. There will be no session of the legislature until 1896; but the association will seek in every way to interest the people of the Territory in the matter, and to arouse a public sentiment that will compel action by the legislature at its next session.

Utah, in a sense a half-way station between the East and the West, receives more than its share of the army of tramps crossing

the continent. Thus far the only method of dealing with this class by the authorities has been to arrest them for vagrancy, and thrust them into prison for a few days. Last year the Rescue Mission, organized by the co-operation of the different Protestant churches in Salt Lake, opened its doors to homeless men. The wood-yard connected with the mission enables every applicant for aid to earn his meals and lodging. There is a free reading-room in the building, which is well patronized, especially in winter. There is also a free employment office, managed by the superintendent of the mission.

The "hard times" through which the whole country has been passing were not felt in Utah to a serious extent until late in the fall. When it became apparent that a thousand men, most of them with families, would be thrown out of employment for the winter in Salt Lake alone, citizens of all classes and all creeds united to devise and carry out measures of relief. Several thousand dollars were raised by subscription to pay for work on the streets. The municipal and county authorities were petitioned to appropriate money for public work, and both responded to the extent of their available resources. The workingmen displayed admirable patience and good sense. They consented cheerfully to work for half the usual wages, in order that the money raised might help as many families as possible. The ladies of the city furnished means to be used by the General Relief Committee to open a sewing-room, in which women were provided with work, and paid at the rate of 10 cents an hour.

During the period of greatest distress a soup-house was opened, and from six to eight hundred meals were furnished daily.

The plan of affording relief in work, first inaugurated by the Rescue Mission, has proved so successful that it will no doubt be adopted, as far as it can be, by all our charitable organizations.

The great, the crying evil in our prison management is lack of employment for prisoners in the penitentiary and in county jails. To this is added, in the county jails, the lack of any provision for exercise. Many prisoners spend the whole term of imprisonment in their cells, never leaving them except for their meals and for the religious services on Sunday. The jailers are not to blame for this. The fault is in the jails themselves, in their construction and surroundings.

Great progress has been made in the care of the insane. The

Insane Asylum is a monument to the very great improvement in the policy of the Territory in dealing with at least one class of dependants. The contrast between the treatment of the insane ten years ago and their care and treatment to-day is almost like the contrast between the dark ages and the nineteenth century. The people of the Territory are beginning to realize the fact that they are not doing their duty toward dependent children, and the hope is entertained that the next legislature will give this subject the attention it merits.

Washington. *Population*, 400,000.

Washington has no State Board of Charities, and the State makes no effort to sum up results of expenditures on account of its charities.

There are nine Indian schools within the State, sustained by the United States government, the funds arising from the sale of lands formerly belonging to the Indians.

Washington supports institutions for the deaf and dumb, blind, feeble-minded, and juvenile delinquents. An industrial department for boys at the school for juvenile delinquents has been instituted, and a superintendent of industry employed. The same was attempted in the girls' department. So far there does not seem to have been much benefit derived from the efforts made in this direction. Better results are hoped for next year.

There has been some talk of distributing the State convicts among the different counties to build roads. The prisoners are at present worked in a jute mill.

West Virginia. *Population*, 762,794.

Has no State Board of Charities. There are five State institutions in the State,— penitentiary, Reform School for Boys, school for deaf and dumb and blind, and two insane hospitals.

General Information.— It is exceedingly difficult, and in most cases impossible, to obtain information required for the report. The larger amount of the work connected with the care of the dependent classes is relegated in a loose manner to the counties. Of very much of it there is no supervision by any central authority.

What the State seems to need is a State Board of Charities, which should always be unpartisan in composition. This would establish a central source of power and oversight over the institutions beyond that which the governor can or does give them. Very much of this seems to be simply the power of appointment to positions in the few institutions the State now has.

Wisconsin. *Population*, 1,800,000.

Wisconsin has a State Board of Control that has control of all charitable, reformatory, and penal institutions, and acts as a lunacy commission.

At the State institutions — namely, State hospitals for insane, schools for the deaf and dumb and blind, Industrial School for Boys, State prison, and State Public School — the expense is borne by the State, except that in the insane hospitals the counties are charged $1.50 per week, and amount expended for clothing for inmates. The counties are also charged $1.00 for incorrigible boys sent to the Industrial School for Boys. About three-fifths of the State convicts are worked under contract, two-fifths on State account.

General Information. — One of the most needed reforms in the State of Wisconsin is a home for feeble-minded. These unfortunates are crowded in poorhouses, jails, and police stations.

Wyoming. *Population*, 60,000.

The State Board of Charities and Reform has general supervision and control of all charitable, reformatory, and penal institutions of the State, not including State poor-farm.

The State supports the State convicts and the insane, juvenile delinquents, imbeciles, deaf and dumb and blind. Counties support prisoners not sentenced to State prison, and the poor.

The lessee of the prison has the product of labor of convicts.

There is no provision made for children.

LIST OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

(BENEVOLENT, PENAL, AND REFORMATORY.)

ALABAMA.

Name.	*Location.*	*Name and Title of Officer in Charge.*
Alabama Institution for the Deaf	Talladega	Dr. J. N. Johnston, Jr.
Alabama Academy for the Blind	Talladega	Dr. J. N. Johnston, Jr.
Alabama School for Negro Deaf-mutes and Blind	Talladega	Dr. J. N. Johnston, Jr.
State Penitentiary	Wetumpka	T. C. Dorson, *Warden.*
Prison No. 2	Spigner	J. O. Adams, *Warden.*
Prison No. 3	Spigner	J. A. Lyle.
Shaft Prison	Pratt City	J. T. Rogers.
Slope Prison	Pratt City	W. C. Rogers.
State Hospital for Insane	Tuscaloosa	Dr. James T. Searcey.

ARIZONA TERRITORY.

Territorial Prison	Yuma	Thomas Gates, *Superintendent.*
Territorial Insane Asylum	Phœnix	Dr. L. B. Hamblin *Phys. and Supt.*
Territorial Reform School	Flagstaff	George Babbitt, *Pres. Trustees.*
Territorial University	Tucson	Prof. Comstock, *President.*
Territorial Normal School	Tempe	F. J. Netherton, *Superintendent.*

ARKANSAS.

State School for the Blind	Little Rock	W. E. Ferguson, *Superintendent.*
Arkansas Deaf-mute Institute	Little Rock	Frank B. Yates, *Superintendent.*
Arkansas Lunatic Asylum	Little Rock	Dr. J. J. Robertson, *Supt.*
Confederate Soldiers' Home	Little Rock	J. R. Johnson.
Arkansas Penitentiary	Little Rock	E. T. McConnell.

CALIFORNIA.

State Prison	San Quentin	W. E. Hale, *Warden.*
State Prison	Folsom	Charles Aull, *Warden.*
Whittier State School	Whittier	W. Lindley, M.D., *Superintendent.*
Preston School of Industry	Ione	E. Carl Bank, *Superintendent.*
State Insane Asylum	Stockton	Asa Clark, *Medical Superintendent.*
State Insane Asylum	Napa	A. M. Gardner, *Resident Physician.*
State Insane Asylum	Agnew	F. W. Hatch, *Medical Director.*
Mendocino Asylum	Ukiah	E. W. King, *Medical Supt.*
Southern California Hospital for Insane and Inebriates	San Bernardino	M. B. Campbell, *Medical Director.*
Home for Feeble-minded Children	Glen Ellen	A. E. Osborne, *Superintendent.*
Deaf and Dumb and Blind Asylum	Berkeley	W. Wilkinson, *Principal.*
Home for Adult Blind	Oakland	Joseph Sanders, *Superintendent.*

CANADA, MANITOBA.

Name.	*Location.*	*Name and Title of Officer in Charge.*
Provincial Jail	Winnipeg	P. Lawlac, *Jailer.*
Provincial Jail	Portage la Prair	William Moses, *Jailer.*
Provincial Jail	Brandon	R. J. Nixon, *Jailer.*
Asylum for Insane	Brandon	Gordon Bell, M.D., *Supt.*
Asylum for Insane	Letkirk	David Young, M.D., *Supt.*
Home for Incurables	Portage la Prair	J. P. Young, *Superintendent.*
Home for Incurables	Portage la Prair	T. M. Mellroy, M.D., *Supt.*
Deaf and Dumb Institute	Winnipeg	

CANADA, ONTARIO.

Central Prison	Toronto	James Massie, *Warden.*
Reformatory for Females	Toronto	Mrs. M. J. O'Reilly, *Supt.*
Reformatory for Boys	Penetanguishene	Thomas McCrosson, *Supt.*
Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Belleville	R. Mathison, *Superintendent.*
Institution for the Blind	Brantford	A. H. Dymond, *Principal.*
Asylum for the Insane	Toronto	Daniel Clark, *Superintendent.*
Asylum for the Insane	London	R. M. Bucke, *Superintendent.*
Asylum for the Insane	Kingston	C. K. Clarke, *Superintendent.*
Asylum for the Insane	Hamilton	James Russell, *Superintendent.*
Asylum for the Insane	Mimico	J. B. Murphy, *Superintendent.*
Asylum for Idiots	Orellia	A. N. Beaton, *Superintendent.*

COLORADO.

Penitentiary	Cañon City	F. A. McLister, *Warden.*
Reformatory	Buena Vista	I. G. Berry, *Warden.*
Insane Asylum	Pueblo	Dr. P. R. Thombs, *Superintendent.*
Mute and Blind Institute	Colorado Springs	Prof. John E. Ray, *Superintendent.*
Industrial School for Boys	Golden	G. A. Garard, *Superintendent.*
Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Monte Vista	Major A. Coates, *Com.*
*Industrial School for Girls	Denver	

CONNECTICUT.

Connecticut Hospital for Insane	Middletown	Jno. Olmstead, M.D.
Connecticut State Prison	Wethersfield	J. L. Woodbridge.
Connecticut School for Boys	Meriden	
Connecticut Indian School for Girls	Middletown	W. J. Fairbank.

Private Corporations receiving State Pupils.

Connecticut School for Imbeciles	Lakeville	G. F. Knight, M.D.
American Asylum for Education of the Deaf and Dumb	Hartford	J. C. Williams.
Retreat for Insane	Hartford	H. P. Stearns, M.D.

FLORIDA.†

Insane Asylum	Chattahoochee	J. W. Trammell, *Superintendent.*
Institute for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind	St. Augustine	Prof. H. N. Felkel, *Principal.*

*Not yet organized. In the mean time the girls are committed by a contract with the State to the House of the Good Shepherd.

†State convicts are leased out. The following are the principal lessees: West Brothers, West Farm; Cranford Brothers, Alachua; Hon. E. B. Bailey, Albion.

FLORIDA.—*Continued.*

Name.	*Location.*	*Name and Title of Officer in Charge.*
Florida Agricultural College	Lake City	O. Clute, *President.*
State Normal School (white)	DeFuniak Springs,	Rev. C. P. Walker, *President.*
State Normal School (colored)	Tallahassee	T. De S. Tucker, *President.*
West Florida Seminary	Tallahassee	Prof. A. F. Lewis, *President.*
East Florida Seminary	Gainesville	Col. W. P. Cater, *President.*

GEORGIA.

Georgia Lunatic Asylum	Milledgeville	Dr. T. O. Powell, *Superintendent.*
Georgia Academy for the Blind	Macon	Prof. Wm. D. Williams, *Principal.*
State Institute for Deaf and Dumb	Cave Spring	W. O. Connor, *Principal.*

IDAHO.

The Idaho Insane Asylum	Blackfoot	
The Idaho Penitentiary	Boisé City	
State Normal School	Albion	
State Normal School	Lewiston	
University of Idaho		
State Reform School	Mt. Home	
Soldiers' Home		

ILLINOIS.

Northern Hospital for Insane	Elgin	Dr. Arthur Loewy.
Eastern Hospital for Insane	Kankakee	Dr. Clarke Goper.
Central Hospital for Insane	Jacksonville	Dr. J. F. McKenzie.
Southern Hospital for Insane	Anna	Dr. W. C. Leny.
Asylum for Insane Criminals	Chester	Dr. V. S. Benson.
Institution for Deaf and Dumb	Jacksonville	Dr. S. T. Walker.
Institution for Blind	Jacksonville	Dr. W. F. Short.
Asylum for Feeble-minded Children	Lincoln	Dr. A. M. Miller.
Soldiers' Orphans' Home	Normal	Capt. C. E. Bassett.
Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary,	Chicago	J. B. Foley.
Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Quincy	Major Geo. W. Fogg.
Home for Juvenile Female Offenders	Chicago	Margaret Wilkins.

INDIANA.

Central Hospital for Insane	Indianapolis	G. F. Edenharter, M.D., *Supt.*
Northern Hospital for Insane	Logansport	J. G. Rogers, M.D., *Supt.*
Eastern Hospital for Insane	Richmond	Samuel E. Smith, M.D., *Supt.*
Southern Hospital for Insane	Evansville	A. J. Thomas, M.D., *Supt.*
School for Feeble-minded Youth	Fort Wayne	Ales. Johnson, *Superintendent.*
Institution for the Deaf	Indianapolis	R. O. Johnson, *Superintendent.*
Institution for the Blind	Indianapolis	E. E. Griffith, *Superintendent.*
Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home	Kingstown	A. H. Graham, *Superintendent.*
Reform School for Girls and Woman's Prison	Indianapolis	Sarah F. Kelly, *Superintendent.*
Reform School for Boys	Plainfield	T. J. Carlton, *Superintendent.*
State Prison, North	Michigan City	James W. French, *Warden.*
State Prison, South	Jeffersonville	James B. Patton, *Warden.*

INDIAN TERRITORY.

Name.	*Location.*	*Name and Title of Officer in Charge.*
United States Jails (all in charge of United States marshals)	Muskogee	J. J. McAlester.
	South McAlester	J. J. McAlester.
	Ardmore	J. J. McAlester.
Cherokee Orphan School	Tahlequah	Rev. T. Thompson, *Supt.*
Choctaw Orphan School (Girls)	Wheelock	Dr. S. W. Ellis, *Superintendent.*
Choctaw Orphan School (Boys)	Caddo	Superintendent of Choctaw Schools.
Seminole	Wewoka	Gov. John Brown.
Creek Orphan	Tulsa	Gov. Legus Perryman.
Chickasaw Orphan Home	Tuskahoma	Chickasaw Governor (Byrd).

IOWA.

Hospital for Insane	Clarinda	Frank C. Hoyt, M.D., *Supt.*
Hospital for Insane	Independence	Gershom H. Hill, M.D., *Supt.*
Hospital for Insane	Mt. Pleasant	H. A. Gilman, M.D., *Supt.*
Industrial Home for Adult Blind	Knoxville	M. G. Gebhardt, *Superintendent.*
Industrial Home (Girls)	Mitchellville	C. C. Cory, *Superintendent.*
Industrial Home (Boys)	Eldora	J. B. Miles, *Superintendent.*
Iowa School for the Deaf	Council Bluffs	Henry W. Rothert, *Supt.*
Institute for Feeble-minded Youth	Glenwood	F. W. Powell, M.D., *Supt.*
Penitentiary	Anamosa	P. W. Madden, *Warden.*
Penitentiary	Ft. Madison	E. C. McMillan, *Warden.*
Iowa Soldiers' Orphans' Home	Davenport	J. H. Lukens, *Superintendent.*
Iowa College for the Blind	Vinton	T. F. McCune, *Principal.*
*Benedict Home	Des Moines	Mrs. S. R. Woods, *Superintendent.*

KANSAS.

State Penitentiary	Lansing	S. W. Chase, *Warden.*
State Insane Asylum	Topeka	Dr. McCasey, *Superintendent.*
State Insane Asylum	Osawatomie	Dr. L. F. Wentworth, *Supt.*
State Reform School	Topeka	E. C. Hitchcock, *Superintendent.*
Institution for the Education of the Deaf-mutes	Olathe	A. A. Stewart, *Superintendent.*
Institution for the Education of the Blind,	Kansas City	W. G. Todd, *Superintendent.*
Asylum for Idiotic and Imbecile Youth	Winfield	F. Hoyt Pilcher, *Superintendent.*
Industrial School for Girls	Beloit	Miss Hahn, *Superintendent.*
State Soldiers' Orphans' Home	Atchison	Chas. E. Faulkner, *Superintendent.*

LOUISIANA.

Penitentiary	Baton Rouge	Col. James, *Lessee.*
Louisiana Institution for the Education of Deaf and Dumb	Baton Rouge	Capt. John Jastremsky, *Supt.*
School for the Blind	Baton Rouge	Mrs. Lane, *Superintendent.*
Insane Asylum	Jackson	Dr. Jones, *Superintendent.*
Charity Hospital	Shreveport	
Charity Hospital	New Orleans	Dr. A. B. Miles, *House Surgeon.*
Soldiers' Home	Shreveport	

*This home is supported partly by the State, partly by charity. Founded and managed by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. Visited by committee from the legislature.

MAINE.

Name.	*Location.*	*Name and Title of Officer in Charge.*
Maine State Prison	Thomaston	S. H. Allen, *Warden.*
Maine Insane Hospital	Augusta	Dr. B. T. Sanburn, *Superintendent.*
Reform School for Boys	Cape Elizabeth	T. R. Farington, *Superintendent.*
Girls' Industrial School	Hallowell	E. Rowell, *Superintendent.*
Military and Naval Orphan Asylum	Bath	J. G. Richardson, *Trustee.*
Temporary Home for Women and Children	Portland	Miss A. M. Sides, *Matron.*

MARYLAND.

Maryland Penitentiary	Baltimore	John F. Weyler, *Warden.*
House of Correction	Jessup's	Capt. J. Jesse Moore, *Supt.*
Hospital for Insane	Catonsville	George H. Roehe, M.D.
School for the Deaf	Frederick	Charles W. Eby, A.M., *Principal.*
Training School for Feeble-minded Children	Owing's Mills	B. A. Turner, M.D., *Principal.*

MASSACHUSETTS.

Worcester Lunatic Hospital	Worcester	H. M. Quinby, M.D.
Worcester Insane Asylum	Worcester	Ernest V. Scribner, M.D.
Taunton Lunatic Hospital	Taunton	John P. Brown, M.D.
Northampton Lunatic Asylum	Northampton	Edward B. Nims, M.D.
Danvers Lunatic Asylum	Danvers	Charles W. Page, M.D.
Westboro Insane Asylum	Westboro	George S. Adams.
Medfield Insane Asylum	Medfield	
Lyman School for Boys	Westboro	Theodore T. Chapin.
Industrial School for Girls	Lancaster	L. L. Brackett.
State Primary School	Monson	Walter A. Wheeler.
Hospital Cottage for Children	Templeton	Everett Flood, M.D.
Mass. Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary	Boston	George Stedman, M.D.
Massachusetts General Hospital	Boston	John W. Pratt, M.D.
Massachusetts Homœopathic Hospital	Boston	Thomas M. Strong, M.D.
Massachusetts Hospital for Dipsomaniac and Inebriates	Foxboro	M. Hutchinson, M.D.
Massachusetts School for Feeble-minded	Waltham	Walter E. Fernald, M.D.
Massachusetts School for the Blind	Boston	Michael Anagnos.
Soldiers' Home	Chelsea	George W. Creary.
State Prison	Charlestown	B. F. Bridges.
Massachusetts Reformatory	Concord	Joseph F. Scott.
State Almshouse	Tewksbury	H. B. Howard, M.D.
Reformatory Prison for Women	Sherborn	Mrs. Ellen C. Johnson.

MICHIGAN.

Michigan State Prison	Jackson	William Chamberlain, *Warden.*
State House of Correction and Reformatory	Iona	E. Parsell, *Warden.*
State House of Correction and Branch Prison	Marquette	J. R. Van Evera, *Warden.*
Detroit House of Correction	Detroit	Joseph Nicholson, *Superintendent.*
Michigan Asylum for Dangerous and Criminal Insane	Iona	O. R. Long, *Medical Supt.*
Michigan Asylum for Insane	Kalamazoo	Wm. M. Edwards, *Medical Supt.*

MICHIGAN.—*Continued.*

Name.	*Location.*	*Name and Title of Officer in Charge.*
Northern Michigan Asylum	Traverse City	James D. Munson, *Medical Supt.*
Eastern Michigan Asylum	Pontiac	C. B. Burr, *Medical Supt.*
Wayne County Insane Asylum	Wayne	E. O. Bennett, *Medical Supt.*
St. Joseph's Retreat for the Insane	Dearborn	(Roman Catholic. Private.)
Oak Grove (private asylum for insane)	Flint	George C. Palmer, *Medical Dir.*
Michigan School for the Deaf	Flint	F. D. Clarke, *Superintendent.*
Michigan School for the Blind	Lansing	E. P. Church, *Superintendent.*
State Industrial Home for Girls	Adrian	Mrs. Lucy M. Sickles, *Supt.*
The Industrial School for Boy	Lansing	J. E. St. John, *Superintendent.*
State Public School	Coldwater	A. N. Woodruff, *Superintendent.*
Home for Feeble-minded and Epileptic	Lapeer	(Under construction.)
Upper Peninsula Insane Asylum	Newberry	(Under construction.)

MINNESOTA.

Hospital for Insane	St. Peter	H. A. Tomlinson M.D., *Supt.*
Hospital for Insane	Rochester	A. F. Kilbourne, M.D., *Supt.*
Minnesota Hospital for Insane	Fergus Falls	George O. Walsh, M.D., *Supt.*
State Public School	Owatonna	Galen A. Merrill, *Superintendent.*
State Reform School	Red Wing	J. W. Brown, *Superintendent.*
State Reformatory	St. Cloud	Wm. E. Lee, *Superintendent.*
State Prison	Stillwater	Henry Wolfer, *Warden.*
School for the Deaf	Faribault	J. L. Noyes, *Superintendent.*
School for the Blind	Faribault	J. J. Dow, *Superintendent.*
School for the Feeble-minded	Faribault	A. C. Rogers, M.D., *Supt.*
Minnesota Soldiers' Home	Minneapolis	(Com'd't) Thos. McMillan, *Supt.*

MISSOURI.

State Lunatic Asylum No. 1	Fulton	R. S. Wilson, M.D., *Supt.*
State Lunatic Asylum No. 2	St. Joseph	C. R. Woodson, M.D., *Supt.*
State Lunatic Asylum No. 3	Nevada	R. E. Young, M.D., *Supt.*
Missouri School for Blind	St. Louis	J. T. C. Sibley, A.M., M.D., *Supt.*
Missouri School for Deaf and Dumb	Fulton	J. N. Tate, A.M., *Superintendent.*
Missouri Reform School for Boys	Boonville	L. D. Drake, *Superintendent.*
State Industrial School for Girls	Chillicothe	Emily M. Gilbert, *Superintendent.*
Missouri State Penitentiary	Jefferson City	James L. Pose, *Warden.*

MONTANA.

Deaf and Dumb School	Boulder	Will Kennedy, *President.*
State School of Mines	Butte	F. E. Sargent, *President.*
Home for Orphans, Foundlings, and Destitute Children	Twin Bridges	Patrick] Carney, *President.*

NEBRASKA.

State Penitentiary	Lincoln	A. D. Beemer, *Warden.*
Nebraska Hospital for Insane	Lincoln	Jno. T. Hay, *Superintendent.*
The Industrial School for Boys	Kearney	Jno. T. Mallalieu, *Superintendent.*
Girls' Industrial School	Geneva	J. D. McKelvey. *Superintendent.*
Hospital for the Insane	Norfolk	C. B. Little, *Superintendent.*
Institute for the Deaf	Omaha	J. A. Gillespie, *Superintendent.*
Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Grand Island	D. A. Scovill, *Superintendent.*

NEBRASKA.—*Continued.*

Name.	*Location.*	*Name and Title of Officer in Charge.*
Hastings Asylum for Incurables	Hastings	G. W. Johnson, *Superintendent.*
The Industrial Home	Milford	Mrs. C. S. Carscadden.
Home for the Friendless	Lincoln	Mrs. L. B. Hall, *Superintendent.*
Institution for Feeble-minded	Beatrice	J. P. Armstrong, *Superintendent.*
Institution for the Blind	Nebraska City	Wm. Ebright, *Superintendent.*

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

New Hampshire State Prison	Concord	George W. Colbath, *Warden.*
State Industrial School for Boys and Girls,	Manchester	John C. Ray, *Superintendent.*
Asylum for Insane	Concord	C. P. Bancroft, *Superintendent.*
Soldiers' Home	Tilton	Capt. E. H. Smith, *Com.*
Orphans' Home	Franklin	Rev. J. Noyes, *Superintendent.*
Rolfe and Rumford Home for Girls	Concord	Miss M. E. Robinson, *Matron.*
Children's Home	Dover	Mrs. Andrew Wentworth, *Matron.*

NEW JERSEY.

New Jersey State Prison	Trenton	John H. Patterson, *Keeper.*
Essex County Penitentiary	Caldwell	
Hudson County Penitentiary	Jersey City	
State Reform School	Jamesburg	Ira A. Otterson, *Principal*
Girls' State Industrial School	Trenton	Mary A. McFadden, *Principal.*
School for Deaf-mutes	Trenton	Weston Jenkins, *Principal.*
Hospital for Insane	Trenton	J. W. Ward, M.D.
Hospital for Insane	Morris Plains	B. D. Evans, M.D.
New Jersey Home for Feeble-minded Children	Vineland	Rev. J. C. Garrison, *Principal.*

NEW MEXICO.

University of New Mexico	Albuquerque	W. B. Childers, *Secretary.*
New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	Las Cruces	Jose G. Chaves, *Secretary.*
New Mexico Normal School	Silver City	J. W. Fleming, *Secretary.*
New Mexico Normal School	Las Vegas	T. Labadie, *Secretary.*
New Mexico School of Mines	Socorro	J. G. Fitch, *Secretary.*
New Mexico Military Institute	Albuquerque	R. S. Goss, *Manager.*
New Mexico Insane Asylum	Las Vegas	Lorenzo Lopez.
Territorial Board of Education	Santa Fé	Amado Chaves, *Secretary.*
New Mexico Penitentiary	Santa Fé	E. H. Bergmann, *Manager.*
Capitol Custodian Committee	Santa Fé	Lorion Miller, *Secretary.*
Territorial Board of Equalization	Santa Fé	M. C. De Baca, *Secretary.*
Cattle Sanitary Board	Albuquerque	Joseph E. Saint, *Secretary.*
Bureau of Immigration	Santa Fé	Max Frost, *Secretary.*
Board of Medical Examiners	Santa Fé	W. E. Eggert, *Secretary.*
Board of Dental Examiners	Santa Fé	D. W. Manley, *Secretary.*

NEW YORK.

Utica State Hospital	Utica	Dr. G. Alder Blumer, *Supt.*
Willard State Hospital	Willard	Dr. Theo. H. Kellogg, *Supt.*
Hudson River State Hospital	Poughkeepsie	Dr. Charles W. Pilgrim, *Supt.*
Middletown State Homœopathic Hospital,	Middletown	Dr. S. H. Talcott, *Superintendent.*
Buffalo State Hospital	Buffalo	Dr. A. W. Hurd, *Superintendent.*

NEW YORK.—*Continued.*

Name.	*Location.*	*Name and Title of Officer in Charge.*
Binghamton State Hospital	Binghamton	Dr. Charles G. Wagner, *Supt.*
St. Lawrence State Hospital	Ogdensburg	Dr. P. M. Wise, *Superintendent.*
Rochester State Hospital	Rochester	Dr. E. H. Howard, *Superintendent.*
New York Institution for the Blind	New York City	William B. Wait, *Superintendent.*
New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	New York City	Enoch Henry Currier, M.A., *Supt.*
Syracuse State Institution for Feeble-minded Children	Syracuse	Dr. James C. Carson, *Supt.*
State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women	Newark	C. W. Winspear, *Superintendent.*
New York House of Refuge	Randall's Island, New York City	Oswin Welles Lowry, *Supt.*
The State Industrial School	Rochester	V. M. Masten, *Acting Supt.*
New York State Reformatory	Elmira	Z. R. Brockway, *Superintendent.*
The House of Refuge for Women	Hudson	Mrs. Sarah V. Coon.
Western House of Refuge for Women	Albion	Mary K. Boyd
New York State Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Bath	Gen. W. F. Rogers.
State Charities Aid Association	New York	Homer Folks, *Secretary.*

NEVADA.

State Prison	Carson City	Frank Bell, *Warden.*
Insane Asylum	Reno	G. H. Thoma, M.D., *Supt.*
State Orphans' Home	Carson City	Robert Grimmon, *Superintendent.*

NORTH CAROLINA.

North Carolina Insane Asylum	Raleigh	George Kirby, M.D., *Supt.*
The State Hospital	Morgantown	P. L. Murphy, M.D., *Supt.*
North Carolina Eastern Hospital		J. F. Miller, M.D., *Supt.*
North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb	Morgantown	E. M. K. Goodwin, *Supt.*
North Carolina School for the Blind	Raleigh	M. J. Young, *Principal.*
North Carolina Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and Blind (colored dependants)		M. J. Young, *Principal.*
North Carolina Orphan Asylum	Oxford	A. M. Lawrence, *Superintendent.*
Asylum for Colored Orphans	Oxford	
North Carolina Soldiers' Home	Raleigh	M. C. Stranach, *General Manager.*
North Carolina State Penitentiary	Raleigh	A. Leager, *Superintendent.*

NORTH DAKOTA.

Hospital for Insane	Jamestown	O. W. Archibald, *Superintendent.*
Penitentiary	Bismarck	W. F. Brucher, *Warden.*
School for the Deaf and Dumb	Devil's Lake	A. R. Spear, *Superintendent.*

OHIO.

Athens State Hospital	Athens	C. O. Dunlap, M.D., *Supt.*
Cleveland State Hospital	Cleveland	H. C. Eyman, M.D., *Supt.*
Columbus State Hospital	Columbus	A. B. Richardson, M.D., *Supt.*
Dayton State Hospital	Dayton	J. M. Ratliff, M.D., *Supt.*
Gallipolis State Hospital for Epileptics	Gallipolis	H. C. Rutter, M.D., *Supt.*
Longview Asylum for Insane	Carthage	F. W. Harmon, M.D., *Supt.*

OHIO.—*Continued.*

Name.	*Location.*	*Name and Title of Officer in Charge.*
Massillon State Hospital	Massillon	(Under construction.)
Toledo State Hospital	Toledo	H. A. Tobey, M.D., *Supt.*
Girls' Industrial Home	Delaware	Capt. A. W. Stiles, *Superintendent.*
Boys' Industrial School	Lancaster	Capt. D. M. Barrett, *Supt.*
Ohio State Reformatory	Mansfield	(Under construction.)
Ohio Penitentiary	Columbus	C. C. James, *Warden.*
Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Columbus	W. S. Eagleson, *Superintendent.*
Institution for the Blind	Columbus	S. S. Burrows, M.D., *Supt.*
Institution for Feeble-minded Youth	Columbus	Dr. G. A. Doren, M.D., *Supt.*
Working Home for the Blind	Iberia	H. G. Palmer, *Superintendent.*
Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home	Xenia	Gen. Chas L. Young, *Supt.*
Ohio Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Sandusky	Gen. M. F. Force, *Com.*

OKLAHOMA.

Oklahoma has no State institutions for insane, criminals, etc. They are kept in other States at its expense.

OREGON.

Oregon State Penitentiary	Salem	George S. Downing, *Supt.*
Oregon State Insane Asylum	Salem	L. L. Rowland, *Superintendent.*
Oregon State Reform School	Salem	R. J. Hendricks, *Superintendent.*
Oregon Institute for the Blind	Salem	E. S. Bolinger, *Superintendent.*
Oregon Deaf Mute School	Salem	
Oregon Soldiers' Home	Rossburg	Wallace Baldwin, *Commandant.*

PENNSYLVANIA.

Pennsylvania Eastern Penitentiary	Philadelphia	Michel J. Cassidy, *Warden.*
Western Penitentiary	Allegheny	Edward S. Wright, *Warden.*
Pennsylvania Industrial Reformatory	Huntingdon	T. B. Patton, *Superintendent.*
Pennsylvania Reform School	Morganza	J. A. Quay, *Superintendent.*
State Hospital for Insane	Harrisburg	H. L. Orth, M.D., *Superintendent.*
State Hospital for Insane	Warren	John Curwen, M.D., *Supt.*
State Hospital for Insane	Danville	Hugh B. Meredith, M.D., *Supt.*
State Hospital for Insane	Morristown	R. R. Richardson, *Chief Physician.*
State Asylum for Chronic Insane	Wernersville	Henry M. Dechert, *President.*
State Hospital for Injured Persons of Anthracite Coal Regions of Pennsylvania	Fountain Springs	Dr. J. C. Biddle, *Superintendent.*
State Hospital of the Middle Coal Fields of Pennsylvania	Hazelton	Dr. H. M. Keller, *Superintendent.*
State Hospital for Injured Persons of the Bituminous Coal Field No. 1	Blossburg	W. S. Nearing, *President.*
State Hospital for Injured Persons of the Bituminous Coal Fields No. 2	Mercer	C. W. Whistler, *President.*
State Hospital for Injured Persons of the Bituminous Coal Fields No. 3	Connellsville	Col. J. M. Reid, *President.*
State Hospital for Injured Persons of the Bituminous Coal Field No. 4	Philipsburg	Robert Lloyd, *President.*
The Penn. Soldiers' and Sailors' Home	Erie	Major W. W. Tyson, *Com.*
The Home for Training in Speech of Deaf Children	Philadelphia	Miss Mary S. Garrett, *Principal.*

PENNSYLVANIA.—*Continued.*

THE FOLLOWING INSTITUTIONS RECEIVE APPROPRIATIONS FROM THE STATE, AND RECEIVE STATE INMATES, ALTHOUGH UNDER PRIVATE MANAGEMENT.

Name.	*Location.*	*Name and Title of Officer in Charge.*
House of Refuge		Mr. F. H. Nibecker, *Supt. Boys.* Mrs. M. Campbell, *Supt. of Girls.*
Pennsylvania Training School for the Feeble-minded Children	Elwyn	Dr. Martin W. Barr, *Physician.*
Western Pennsylvania for Feeble-minded Children (not as yet opened)	Polk	
Western Pennsylvania Hospital for Insane,	Dixmont	Dr. H. A. Hutchinson, *Physician.*
Penn. Institution for Deaf and Dumb	Philadelphia	A. L. E. Cronter, *Superintendent.*
W. Pa. Institute for the Deaf and Dumb	Wilkinsburg	W. N. Burt, *Superintendent.*
The Pa. Oral School for Deaf Mutes	Scranton	Miss Mary C. B. Brown, *Supt.*
Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind	Philadelphia	Edward E. Allen, *Superintendent.*
Western Pennsylvania Institute for the Instruction of the Blind	Pittsburg	H. B. Jacobs, *Superintendent.*

RHODE ISLAND.

State Prison	Howard	N. Viall, *Warden.*
State Almshouse	Howard	J. H. Easteman, *Superintendent.*
State Insane Asylum	Howard	J. H. Easteman, *Superintendent.*
State House of Correction	Howard	J. H. Easteman, *Superintendent.*
State Reform School (Boys)	Howard	W. K. Murray, *Superintendent.*
State Reform School (Girls)	Oaklawn	Mrs. R. S. Butterworth, *Supt.*
State Home School	North Providence,	
State Institute for the Deaf	Providence	Miss L. D. Richards, *Principal.*

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Lunatic Asylum	Columbia	J. W. Babcock, *Superintendent.*
South Carolina Penitentiary	Columbia	W. A. Neal, *Warden.*
Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Cedar Springs	N. F. Walker, *Superintendent.*

TEXAS.

Texas Penitentiaries		L. A. Whatley, *General Supt.*
Huntsville Penitentiary	Huntsville	James G. Smithers, *Assistant Supt.*
Rusk Penitentiary	Rusk	J. B. Gibson, *Assistant Supt.*
House of Correction and Reformatory	Gatesville	J. F. McGuire, *Superintendent.*
Deaf and Dumb Asylum	Austin	W. A. Kendall, *Superintendent.*
Deaf, Dumb, Blind (colored) Institution	Austin	W. H. Holland, *Superintendent.*
Blind Institute	Austin	Frank Rainey, *Superintendent.*
Insane Asylum	Austin	F. S. White, *Superintendent.*
Insane Asylum	Terrell	John Preston, *Superintendent.*
Insane Asylum	San Antonio	W. L. Barker, *Superintendent.*
Orphans' Home	Corsicana	W. A. Wortham, *Superintendent.*

VERMONT.

Vermont State Prison	Windsor	Edwin W. Oaks, *Superintendent.*
Vermont House of Correction	Rutland	D. L. Morgan, *Superintendent.*
Vermont Reform School	Vergennes	A. S. Andrews, *Superintendent.*
Vermont State Asylum for the Insane	Waterbury	
Brattleboro Retreat	Brattleboro	S. E. Lawton, *Superintendent.*
Soldiers' Home	Bennington	R. J. Coffey, *Superintendent.*

WASHINGTON.

Name.	*Location.*	*Name and Title of Officer in Charge.*
Soldiers' Home	Orting	
Washington School for Defective Youth	Vancouver	Prof. James Watson, *Principal.*
Reform School	Chehalis	Prof. Westendorf, *Superintendent.*
Asylum for Insane	Steilacoom	Dr. J. H. Waughop, *Supt.*
Asylum for Insane, Eastern Branch	Medical Lake	
State Penitentiary	Walla Walla	

WEST VIRGINIA.

Penitentiary	Moundsville	
Hospital for Insane	Weston	
Second Hospital for Insane	Spencer	
Reform School for Boys	Pruntytown	
W. Virginia School for Deaf, Dumb, Blind,	Romney	

WISCONSIN.

State Hospital for Insane	Mendota	Dr. J. B. Edwards, *Superintendent.*
Northern State Hospital for Insane	Winnebago	Dr. W. F. Wegge, *Superintendent.*
School for Deaf	Delavan	J. W. Swiler, *Superintendent.*
School for Blind	Janesville	L. S. Pease, *Superintendent.*
Industrial School for Boys	Waukesha	M. J. Regan, *Superintendent.*
State Public School for Children	Sparta	F. L. Sanborn, *Superintendent.*
State Prison	Waupun	P. B. Lamoreaux, *Warden.*
House of Correction	Milwaukee	M. J. McLaughlin, *Supt.*

WYOMING.

State Penitentiary	Laramie	James Marsh, *Lessee.*
State Penitentiary	Rawlins	(In process of construction.)
Insane Asylum	Evanston	C. H. Solier, *Superintendent.*
Poor Farm	Lander	Samuel C. Parke, Jr.
State Hospital	Rock Springs	(In process of construction.)

NUMBER AND COST OF DELINQUENTS

NAME OF STATE.	POPULATION.	Number of State Prisons.	Number of State Prisoners.	Average No. of Prisoners for the Year.	Whole Cost of Keeping, including Salaries.	Total Value of Earnings.	Number of County Jails or Prisons.	Number of Inmates for 1893.	Cost of Keeping.	Number of City Prisons.	Number of Inmates.
Alaska,	35,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Alabama,	1,600,000	5	2,072	1,369	$99,518.61	$108,353.43	60	—	—	—	—
California,	1,208.000	3	—	1,992	275,927.96	—	55	1,510	$163,148.00	10	526
Canada—Manitoba,	200,000	3	423	72	13,523.88	1,200.00	—	—	—	—	—
Canada—Ontario,	2,120,000	—	—	—	—	—	55	9,011	135,706.95	—	—
Colorado,	400,000	1	1,918	610	101,400.00	22,019.12	—	—	—	—	—
Connecticut,	746,258	1	559	291	86,515.08	71,552.01	8	8,890	116,243.57	—	13,598
Delaware,	168,493	—	—	—	—	—	3 C	—	—	—	—
Idaho,	84,000	1	132	94	22,554.14	—	20	—	—	—	—
Indiana,	2,192,404	3	2,273	1,400	179,000.00	178,000.00	92	—	—	115	—
Indian Territory,	150.000	3	D 400	185	20,000.00	—	3 E	—	—	—	—
Iowa,	2,000,000	2	1,098	707	124,891 52	49.025.94	85	—	—	—	—
Kansas,	1,427,096	1	—	884	141,833.69	117,794.99	—	—	—	—	—
Louisiana,	1,200,000	1	—	—	—	—	61	—	—	2	—
Maine,	661,086	1	127	—	22.524.11	4,400 00	14	3,702	70,000.00	—	—
Maryland,	1,042,390	1	914	657	76,345.90	83,099.11	23	—	60,000.00	1	11,233
Massachusetts,	2,450,000	3	1,835	1,929	428,773.53	67,562.45	21	3,034	371,794 03	1	5,305
Michigan,	2,093.889	4	5,537	2,029	373,263.68	276,286.60	80	14,753	159,950.00	*1	3,515
Minnesota,	1,440,000	1	583	330	55,829.00	35,792.00	51	4,270	68,264.00	235	19,805
Montana,	140,000	1	327	—	—	—	21	—	—	6	—
Nebraska,	1,056,793	1	456	325	64,244.95	—	33	3,573	48,798.42	2	7,694
Nevada,	45,000	1	90	90	32,500.00	2,000.00	—	—	—	—	—
New Hampshire,	400,000	1	223	152	22,309.00	18,000.00	11	786	33,050.99	—	—
New Jersey,	1,444,933	1	968	935	165,068 43	60,425.03	21	—	—	—	—
North Dakota,	200,000	1	154	83	18,311.17	1,674 47	22	752	—	7	206
Ohio,	3,672,316	1	1,756	1,796	264.371.53	295,451.49	88	10,281	115,874.76	—	—
Pennsylvania,	5,258.014	3	3,535	2,517	370.532.86	119,817.82	67	51,251	525,402.57	—	—
Rhode Island,	360,000	1	170	141	48,957.54	30,162.27	5	2,387	—	—	—
South Carolina,	1,150,000	1	1,602	925	74,082.34	68,099.77	35	—	—	—	—
South Dakota,	400,000	1	—	83	32,500.00	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tennessee,	1,800,000	3	1,500	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Texas,	2,500,000	2	3,800	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	—
Utah,	250,000	1	—	169	38,067.73	—	—	—	—	—	—
Washington,	400,000	1	400	—	—	—	25	—	—	20	—
West Virginia,	762,794	1	—	—	—	—	54	—	—	—	—
Wisconsin,	1,800,000	1	798	537	73,215.98	60,384.38	67	12,430	141,000.00	170	500
Wyoming,	60,000	1	181	130	23,847.84	—	12	—	—	—	—
Total,	42,918,466	57	33,831	20,432	$3.249 910 47	$1,671.100 88	1,092	126.630	$2,009.233.29	580	62 382

*Michigan has an institution which is the same as reformatory, city prison, and workhouse. The same

E Tribual jails.

AND DEPENDANTS ARRANGED BY STATES.

Number of Reformatories.	Number of Inmates.	Cost of Keeping Inmates of Reformatories.	Juvenile Delinquents.		Workhouses.		Insane.				Epileptics.			
			Number.	Cost of Keeping.	Number of Workhouses.	Cost of Keeping Inmates.	Whole Number of All Classes.	Current Expenditures, including Salaries, not New Buildings.	Number under State Care.	Number under County Care.	Whole Number.	Whole Cost for the Year.	Number under State Care.	Number under County Care.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,148	$124,365.80	1,110	—	—	—	89	—
—	—	—	405	$108,523.36	—	—	4,229	551,205.97	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	170	37,139.69	170	—	20	$423.90	20	—
2	487	$62,619.74	—	—	1	$60,000.00	4,340	509,206.31	4,340	—	—	—	—	—
1	152	25,532.81	212	—	—	—	453	56,739.89	453	—	29	—	29	—
—	—	—	923	127,863.37	—	—	2,426	220,160.26	123	1,112	138	29,310.00	10	128
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	236	25,704.06	236	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	110	31,991.49	109	—	9	—	9	—
—	—	—	937	—	1	—	2,922	539,837.00	2,561	385	563	—	354	209
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	F 1,000 00	—	5	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	584	45,161.90	—	—	4,715	425,895.52	3,715	1,000	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	465	43,759.95	—	—	1,768	218,761.46	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	367	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	163	29,433.00	—	—	685	155,131.00	634	—	—	—	—	—
1	710	29,000.00	1,600	112,500 00	—	—	3,150	300,000 00	1,800	400	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	1,475	—	—	—	6,346	790,776.00	4,803	1,310	—	—	—	—
**1	3,515	78,310.96	1,014	102,963 40	*1	78,310.96	3,818	717,263 57	2,100	660	—	—	—	—
1	249	46,964.00	399	50,100.00	2	48,164.00	3,022	415,837.00	3,022	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	319	71,991.21	—	—	1,259	195,315.92	1,259	80	135	19,531.59	125	10
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	180	33,000.00	180	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	132	17,801.51	—	—	818	97,691.13	523	295	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	472	84,233.22	—	—	2,883	125,173.75	1,711	1,172	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	407	71,694.12	407	—	—	—	—	—
2	1,672	73,542.93	—	—	5	203,320.14	5,135	904,702.76	3,757	1,167	844	—	348	496
—	—	—	1,201	223,979.90	2	214,205.43	8,104	1,046,019.40	6,840	998	—	—	—	—
1	277	—	275	—	—	—	573	—	573	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,700	105,475.78	1,054	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	5	—	345	65,000 00	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,000	175,000.00	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,600	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	—	—	40	—	—	—	189	108,467.28	189	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	146	—	—	—	632	135,444.00	632	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1	2,625	32,933.57	323	31,607.87	—	—	3,765	506,640.83	1,178	2,587	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	8	1,172.09	—	—	42	7,206.11	—	—	—	—	—	—
13	9,687	$348,904 01	11,460	$923.227 41	17	$604,000 53	69,475	$8,897,846.10	43,479	11,171	1,738	$49,265.49	984	843

number is given under each separate heading. C Criminal statistics for two years. D United States jails.
F Insane under tribual care.

Name of State.	Imbeciles.				Deaf and Dumb.		Blind.		Children.		
	Whole Number.	Whole Cost for the Year.	Number under State Care.	Number under County Care.	Number of Deaf and Dumb.	Cost of Keeping for the Year.	Number of Blind.	Cost of Keeping for the Year.	Whole Number for the Year.	Number in Public Homes.	Cost.
Alaska,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Alabama,	—	—	—	—	95	—	95	—	—	—	—
California,	289	$57,595.33	264	—	203	$57,816.00	—	—	4,800	4,800	—
Canada — Manitoba,	30	635.88	30	—	40	11,600 00	—	—	85	—	—
Canada — Ontario,	553	59,288.94	553	—	298	45,440.37	154	$34,954.55	—	2,000	$105,000.00
Colorado,	125	—	—	—	83	47,652.47	53	* —	—	—	—
Connecticut,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	378	33,322.00
Delaware,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Idaho,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Indiana,	1,282	—	455	827	265	65,648.00	248	33,752.00	3,500	3,000	—
Indian Territory,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,600	2,200	200,000.00
Iowa,	3,319	82,432.52	463	—	—	—	1,491	33,000.00	—	420	—
Kansas,	101	17,297.28	—	—	262	38,947.75	80	16,608.13	—	—	—
Louisiana,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Maine,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	342	—	—
Maryland,	40	6,000.00	—	—	116	25,000.00	103	21,000.00	3,000	—	200,000.00
Massachusetts,	2,929	66,036.00	420	—	293	43,880 00	—	—	2,580	751	129,235.00
Michigan,	—	—	—	—	356	57,459.17	77	23,062.91	486	—	—
Minnesota,	352	58,804.00	352	—	210	48,037.00	58	17,865.00	—	338	27,303.00
Montana,	—	—	—	—	11	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nebraska,	431	65,105.31	400	31	140	25,605.88	70	21,642.24	156	—	—
Nevada,	—	—	—	—	3	1,050.00	1	350.00	65	65	13,000.00
New Hampshire,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
New Jersey,	166	41,701.05	166	—	125	35,000.00	90	26,007.92	—	—	—
North Dakota,	12	—	12	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ohio,	1,620	—	1,030	590	435	80,431.71	312	53,325.14	3,709	3,439	250,390.64
Pennsylvania,	977	148,550.33	635	342	824	177,298.98	493	247,200.70	10,000	9,000	1,732,188.00
Rhode Island,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Carolina,	—	—	—	—	104	17,316.95	50	A —	—	—	—
South Dakota,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tennessee,	—	—	—	—	142	25,000.00	115	18,500.00	—	600	—
Texas,	—	—	—	—	227	—	170	—	—	200	—
Utah,	—	—	—	—	49	12,500.00	—	—	—	—	—
Washington,	43	—	—	—	53	—	10	—	—	106	30,000.00
West Virginia,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wisconsin,	—	—	—	—	174	40,346.29	91	31,607.87	470	470	40,618.93
Wyoming,	1	100.00	—	—	1	127.33	1	250 00	—	—	—
Total,	12,270	$603,546.64	4,780	1,790	4,512	$856,157.90	3,762	$579,126.46	31,793	27,767	$2,761,057 57

*Included in cost of keeping deaf and dumb. A Included in cost of deaf and dumb.

CHILDREN.—*Concluded.*					THE POOR.						
Number in Private Homes.	Cost.	Number in Poorhouses.	Cost.	Number Placed in Private Families.	Whole Number of Indoor.	Whole Number of Outdoor.	Total.	Whole Cost of Keeping for Year, Indoor.	Whole Cost of Keeping for Year, Outdoor.	Total.	Number of County Infirmaries.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	66
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	$336,600.00	54
—	—	—	—	40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	50	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	38	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
820	$65,108.00	—	—	402	1,420	—	—	$211,200.25	$394,877.72	606,077.97	88
—	—	—	—	—	416	—	416	23,926.04	8,281.04	32,207.08	3
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	450	$30,000.00	510	3,459	—	—	250,847.50	511,503.35	762,350.85	92
400	25,000.00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
675	—	—	—	316	4,363	—	—	—	—	—	57
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	55	—	—	1,600	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	600	1,300	2,800	4,100	125,000.00	50,000.00	175,000 00	21
1,416	—	414	26,670.00	475	11,348	14 189	25,527	1,242,128.00	655,606.00	1,897,734 00	215
1,105	35,334.28	—	—	—	5,597	45,495	51,092	299,667 02	635,192.94	934,859.96	70
—	—	—	—	—	765	—	—	118,200.00	180,800.00	299,000.00	30
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	21
—	—	69	—	—	—	—	—	151,569.15	130,562.79	282,131.94	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	139	—	—	1,764	—	—	130,514.13	188,033.84	318,547.61	10
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	41
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	240	—	—	—	6
—	—	270	—	B 36	13,805	66,885	80,690	395,801.16	472,207.74	868,009.90	89
1,000	117,312.00	—	—	—	27,851	63,640	91,491	1,255,803.88	1,062,478.03	2,318,281.91	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
300	—	—	—	—	2,000	2,000	4,000	50,000.00	30,000.00	80,000.00	78
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
64	4,000.00	3	—	12	78	—	—	—	—	—	2
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	54
560	—	—	—	227	2,020	—	—	117,530.75	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
6,340	$246,754.28	1,395	$56,670.00	2,711	76,186	195,009	259,156	$4,372,187.88	$4,319,543.45	$8,910,801.22	997

B Placed by Ohio Children's Home Society.

XIII.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Wednesday night, May 23, 1894,

The twenty-first meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Nashville, Tenn., May 23–29.

The first session was called to order, in the Bijou Theatre, on Wednesday night, May 23, by the chairman of the Local Committee, Hon. R. R. Caldwell, County Judge. In welcoming the Conference to Nashville, Judge Caldwell said: "As chairman of the Local Committee, I desire to welcome this body of men and women to Nashville, and to say that the hospitalities of the people are extended to them by heart and hand. Our one idea is that the Conference shall be a success in every particular, especially in making the stay of the delegates among us pleasant and agreeable."

Prayer was offered by Rev. R. Lin Cave.

Adjutant-General Fite welcomed the Conference to the State in lieu of the governor, who could not be present.

Gen. Fite.— *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,*— I regret exceedingly that Governor Turney is not here. I assure you that you have missed much in not being able to see and hear him, for no man in Tennessee has a larger heart than Peter Turney or a better way of expressing himself. He would have extended to you a welcome of which you would have been proud.

We welcome you, ladies and gentlemen, to our State with the consciousness that no body has come with a nobler, higher purpose. If I had a Bible here, I would read from Paul's letter to the Corinthians his words about charity,— that, if we have not charity we have noth-

ing; and that, of all virtues, charity, love, is the greatest. If that be true, then you have a noble calling.

While the State of Tennessee has done much for her poor unfortunates, the insane,— we have three large insane asylums — she is not doing more than she ought to do. We have, however, one institution to which I may call attention with pride, our State Industrial School. It is a home where little boys who have no parents are cared for and educated. I hope the Conference will visit that institution.

Again I welcome you to our city and our State in the name of the people of Tennessee.

George B. Guild, Esq., Mayor of Nashville, welcomed the Conference to the city in the following words: —

Mayor GUILD.— *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,*— It gives me much pleasure to extend the courtesies and hospitalities of the citizens of Nashville to the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

The name you bear is of itself a passport to all intelligent Christian communities, and bespeaks for you their hearty co-operation and sympathy. We may differ among ourselves upon the policies of civil government, and hold to our special church creeds; but here is a platform broad enough for all philanthropic citizens to stand upon, united. Love for our Creator and love for our fellowman are the two great commandments of Holy Writ, and embrace within their scope the whole duty of man. The one is an act of faith: the other is one that we are brought in contact with in everyday life, one that we can see and feel and understand. Touched by human woe, you visit the haunts where,

> "Unpitied and unheard, squalid misery moans,
> Where sickness pines, and thirst and hunger burn,
> And poor misfortune feels the lash of vice."

It is too true that "man's inhumanity to man makes countless thousands mourn." Conscience cries out in thunder tones, This should not be so. Hence we hail with pleasure this representative body of distinguished ladies and gentlemen who meet in conference to consider these important questions. May your deliberations result in good! May your stay with us be pleasant, as well as profitable! I extend to each of you a hearty Tennessee grip of the hand, with a God bless you.

The response for the Conference to the speeches of welcome was delivered by William Howard Neff, Esq., of Ohio.

Mr. NEFF.— *Mr. President, and Ladies and Gentlemen,*— We thank the Adjutant-General of Tennessee and the mayor of the city of Nashville for the gracious words of welcome they have spoken. We accept them, as the voice of a State which has given three Presidents to the nation, and of a city one of the fairest and most attractive in the land. We accept them, not merely as words of personal welcome, worthy of the proverbial hospitality of the South, but also as the assurance of a deep and abiding interest in the great cause we represent. We come from all parts of the United States in behalf of intelligent, systematic, judicious, and organized charity. We come to discuss the best methods of caring for our dependent, defective, and delinquent people. We come to state our difficulties to each other, to relate our experiences in labor, our failures, and our successes. We come to receive and to impart strength, and to derive from communion with each other fresh inspiration for our work. Twenty-one times, in as many years, we have met in this manner, and each time with great benefit to ourselves, to the Boards of State Charities, and the institutions we represent, and, we have reason to believe, to the cities and States which have received us with hearty welcome and abounding hospitality.

We discuss the best methods of caring for the insane, the feeble-minded, the blind, the deaf and dumb. We examine minutely into the causes and the cure for pauperism, that plant of foreign growth, which we wish to exterminate from our soil. We carefully study the condition of the criminal classes, the great subject of penal correction and reform. We bring every aid in our power, which diligent study, intelligent travel, and judicious observation can devise, for the prevention of crime, and find the highest reach of all our efforts in the care of the young, the orphan, the friendless, the waifs of society, the destitute and the forsaken. We strive to reach the fountain-head of poverty, distress, and crime, and there to apply the remedy.

To this work we invite your hearty co-operation. We wish to learn your methods and to show you ours. We wish to compare notes with you, to hear your suggestions, to take counsel with you respecting these momentous subjects, believing that they afford the noblest opportunities for good citizenship and the highest patriotism.

If there is a nobler work to which an American citizen can aspire than that to which we invite your attention, we know not where to look for it.

In this Conference you will become familiar with the theories and the practice which have placed the United States in the front rank in benevolence and charity, as administered with wisdom and discretion.

We believe that you will add another link to the chain which binds us together as a nation, united in interest, in government, in true progress, and in charity.

Judge Caldwell then presented to Hon. Lucius C. Storrs, President

of the Conference, on behalf of the Ladies' Hermitage Association, a gavel made from wood of a tree which grows at the head of Andrew Jackson's grave, to which Mr. Storrs made a fitting response.

President Storrs then took charge of the Conference.

On motion of Dr. C. S. Hoyt, of New York, it was voted that a Committee of five on Business and Resolutions be appointed by the President.

On motion of Hon. John R. Elder, of Indiana, it was voted that a Committee on Time and Place of the Twenty-second Conference should be appointed, to consist of a member from each State and Territory, to be nominated by the delegates from their respective States and Territories.

On motion of General R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, it was voted that a Committee on Organization of the Twenty-second Conference, to consist of one member from each State and Territory, to be nominated by delegates from their respective States and Territories, should be appointed by the President.

These three committees were subsequently announced, but for convenience of reference they are given here: —

On Business and Resolutions.— Dr. C. S. Hoyt, New York; J. Warner Mills, Colorado; Alexander Johnson, Indiana; W. S. Hough, Ohio; George W. Johnson, Massachusetts.

On Time and Place.— John R. Elder, Indiana, chairman; John H. Gabriel, of Colorado; H. D. Smith, Connecticut; O. B. Hallam, District of Columbia; C. G. Trusdell, Illinois; B. J. Miles, Iowa; C. E. Faulkner, Kansas; Julius Barkhouse, Kentucky; Michael Heymann, Louisiana; Edward Hitchcock, Massachusetts; J. R. Brackett, Maryland; Alfred O. Crozier, Michigan; Edwin Dunn, Minnesota; Isadore Strauss, Mississippi; Thomas M. Finney, Missouri; Jno. Laughlin, Nebraska; N. S. Rosenau, New York; W. H. Neff, Ohio; Thomas M. Yundt, Pennsylvania; J. H. Nutting, Rhode Island; R. R. Caldwell, Tennessee; Fred. Wilkins, Wisconsin.

On Organization.— General R. Brinkerhoff, Ohio, chairman; J. Warner Mills, Colorado; W. G. Fairbanks, Connecticut; Herbert W. Lewis, District of Columbia; Mrs. Glen Wood, Illinois; William C. Ball, Indiana; George K. Hoover, Iowa; M. A. Householder, Kansas; J. Q. A. Stewart, Kentucky; Michael Heymann, Louisiana; George W. Johnson, Massachusetts; John Glenn, Maryland; Mrs. Agnes L. D'Arcambal, Michigan; C. P. Maginnis, Minnesota;

L. D. Drake, Missouri; J. T. Mallalieu, Nebraska; Charles D. Kellogg, New York; F. H. Nibecker, Pennsylvania; J. S. Menkin, Tennessee; A. E. Elmore, Wisconsin.

The annual address was given by the President (page 1).

On motion of N. S. Rosenau, it was voted that part of the President's address, relating to an amendment to Rule II., should be referred to the Committee on Organization, with instructions to report a proper amendment covering the ground referred to.

The Conference was then invited to a reception at the Maxwell House.

Adjourned at 9.30 P.M.

SECOND SESSION.

Thursday morning, May 24.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 9.30 A.M. in the hall of the Young Men's Christian Association, around the walls of which hung shields with the names of all the charitable institutions of Nashville. Prayer was offered by Rev. Robert K. Brown.

The President announced the Committee on Business and Resolutions (page 277).

The order for the morning was Reports from States, under the charge of the chairman, Joseph P. Byers, Ohio, who made a general report on the subject (page 226).

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— One of the most important points made in the paper by Mr. Byers is that with reference to county jails. There is one jail that has solved the problem. It is in Media, Pa., where there is a complete system of separation, and where labor is provided.

The Committee on State Boards of Charities made a report by the chairman, Hon. Levi L. Barbour, Michigan (page 9).

DISCUSSION ON STATE BOARDS.

The discussion on State Boards was opened by Hon. William Howard Neff, Ohio, Mr. Barbour conducting the discussion, and with Mr. Lindley, of California, in the President's chair.

Mr. NEFF.— Our experience has been with our own law. We have no improvements in it to suggest, and believe it to be perfect in its adaptation to our State, and all others in like condition.

The governor of the State is the *ex officio* president of the Board. The importance of this provision cannot be overrated. It gives the governor the opportunity of knowing minutely, with little labor to himself, the exact condition of all the public institutions of the State. Of course, he is not obliged to be present at all the meetings, as we have a vice-president, a chairman, one of our own number, who presides ordinarily, and supervises the work of the Board; but the governor is our official head, he is frequently present, and is familiar with our plans and ideas. He gives the Board all the executive authority we desire, and we are thus enabled to act promptly in any emergency. All investigations are ordered by him, and a dignity and official position are thus given to the Board which could be attained in no other way.

The Board consists of six members, all men, from different parts of the State, and equally divided between the two great political parties. This has had the effect to eliminate politics from our discussions and actions. A stranger would not know to which party we belonged; and in every instance, and I can speak for the work of fourteen years, we have been united and unanimous. I do not remember a divided vote in that time on any question of policy.

I am aware that in several States ladies are members of the Boards; and, while second to no one in admitting the ability and intelligence of the fairer and better portion of our race, yet there have been many times, in our investigations, when the presence of ladies, as members of the Board, would have been embarrassing to them and to ourselves.

Our powers are advisory, supervisory, and investigatory,— advisory as to the policy of the institutions, their general management, the laws governing them, the founding of new institutions, the system to be adopted, and improvements to be made. It is also our duty to submit to the judgment of the General Assembly of the State of Ohio such drafts of laws as we believe will be conducive to the improvement of the institutions and the public benefit. Sometimes these laws do not pass, sometimes they are long deferred; but, taking a number of years together, we can point to great progress made. Our supervisory powers extend over all the public institutions of the State, and those of the respective counties, children's homes, hospitals, workhouses, jails, infirmaries. When it is realized that each one of the eighty-eight counties of our State has an infirmary and jail, and very many have children's homes; and those counties which have not separate homes unite in groups of three and four to have district homes; that the large cities have hospitals, asylums, and many private charitable institutions which all look to us for advice and direction, as well as supervision, — it will be apparent that our

Board, and especially our secretary, to whom in the very nature of things the county work is mainly committed, have no idle time. Our secretary, who devotes his entire time to this work, is paid a very moderate salary. The members of the Board serve without compensation, but are paid their travelling expenses. This gratuitous work gives a weight to our opinions and judgment which, perhaps, they would not otherwise possess. Our investigatory powers are ample, as it is essential they should be.

We have the powers of a Congressional committee to send for persons and papers, to compel the attendance of witnesses, to pay them their travelling expenses and compensate them for their loss of time. An investigation by the Board of State Charities of Ohio, or by a committee of the Board, is not a farce by any means. It is not ordered until in the judgment of the governor of the State, our president, it is essential. Every opportunity is first given to the trustees of the institution to ascertain the facts, and to correct the error.

In many cases investigations are made at the request of the trustees themselves. All the testimony has to be submitted in writing to the governor at the same time that the verdict of the Board is rendered. In interesting cases the testimony is often furnished daily by the public press of the State, who have been of great service to the Board. Every facility is given to the reporters; for we are alike the servants of the public, and they have a right to know exactly how their charities are administered.

This is a brief outline of work of the Board of State Charities of Ohio,— a system under which the charitable and correctional institutions of Ohio have attained their present position and character.

Mr. Michael Heymann, Louisiana.— There is hope of a State Board of Charities in Louisiana. There is a great deal of scattered charity, but there is no supervision. A copy of the Ohio law providing for a State Board was presented to our legislature last Monday, and I hope we shall secure such a law. To help us in such reforms, we need the presence of this Conference. If we can have such an assembly in New Orleans and can secure a State Board, I think Louisiana would do a great and good work.

Mr. Elder, Indiana.— Through the influence of the late Oscar C. McCulloch, who was one of the original members of the Board, we secured a State Board in Indiana similar to that of Ohio. We were fortunate in getting a good secretary. I myself had never been engaged in charitable matters. I have always been a business man, and thought those interested in charity might attend to that; but since I was appointed on the Board, without solicitation on my part, I have become very much interested in these matters. Our law is similar to the Ohio law, and we have the same powers that they have. No State with charitable institutions, with penitentiaries and jails, can afford to be without a State Board of Charities. In Indiana we have saved the tax-payers in matters of expenditure and wasteful con-

struction twenty times more than the State Board has cost. The governor meets with us occasionally as an *ex-officio* member. If any citizen thinks that any insane institution or penitentiary requires an investigation, he has a right to send to the governor or to any member of the Board, and ask for it. We do not wait for the governor to act; but, without consulting him, we can make an investigation. Our reports are made to the governor. He acts with us in all particulars, faithfully and promptly. We have no power of removal. We can only investigate and report. The press is behind and with us, having confidence in us. When we make a report, that usually settles the matter entirely. We look after the interests of the tax-payers, and at the same time we protect the managers of institutions against false rumors and charges.

Mrs. C. A. WALKER, of the Board of Managers of the Indiana State Reform School for Girls, asked what had been the result of having women on the State Boards.

Mr. ELDER replied that they had two women on the Board, and found them invaluable as members. Their work was well done, and there was much work that they did much better than any men could do it.

Mrs. WALKER said she regarded the idea which would exclude women from these Boards as a relic of the dark ages.

Mr. F. D. WILKINS, Wisconsin.— While Mr. Neff was speaking, I made a memorandum of his statement that the presence of ladies on a State Board would be a cause for embarrassment; and I do not wish that this question, vital as I consider it, should pass from discussion without one man at least placing himself publicly on the ground that there should be women on State Boards. I cannot conceive of any condition when the presence of women could be embarrassing in such a body. If it be so, then that in itself is evidence of a condition of things which ought not to exist. The men forming the male membership of the body must have those characteristics which in themselves are wrong, and they ought to have the presence of women to eradicate those tendencies. I have had occasion to speak on the side of women who have applied to be permitted to attend medical schools where, with one exception, the faculty were arrayed against women becoming medical scholars; and yet they are willing to accept, and even court, the assistance of women qualified by training as nurses, who take part in every possible function which the medical man himself can execute. I can conceive of a number of instances where men would not only be embarrassed in proper investigations of an institution, but where they would be incapable of properly executing them without the assistance of women. Therefore I call it the duty of any State to employ women on the State Board. I wish to place myself on record as believing that women should be placed on any Board where they are qualified to be.

Mrs. R. T. WATERTON, Ohio.— By a recent Ohio law establishing

a board of six county visitors for each county, three must be women.

Mrs. Anne B. Richardson, Massachusetts.— I stand here in evidence of a woman on the oldest State Board in the Union. Ever since 1880 there has always been one woman, and since 1886 there have been two women, on that Board. I can hardly conceive of men being more embarrassed at having women on the Board than the reverse. In all the institutions in the State there is, unfortunately, a large feminine element. In the insane hospitals that element certainly predominates; and I can think of very grave embarrassment in having the examinations of these institutions conducted only by men. In the executive work of the Board I think I may without vanity say that the women are a help, that they are more economical than the men, and in many ways they do a work which the men cannot do. We cannot do without either men or women, and make the work a success.

As to the work of the Board in Massachusetts, in one particular it is exceptional. One of our most important officers is an Inspector of Institutions, subject to the regulations and instructions of the Board. This inspector visits and reports monthly, and oftener, if necessary, to the Executive Committee. If any wrongs are hinted at, he is at once sent out to make further investigations. He reports on the condition of every insane hospital, and of the insane boarded in families or in private institutions. Wherever there is an insane person, there the Board must supervise. The Board is divided into three committees,— one on lunacy, one on charity, and one on inspection. The inspector is a member of no committee, and is not a member of the Board, but is appointed by the Board. The governor is not a member of the Board. He appoints the members of the Board, but gives no instructions. It makes its own rules and regulations, and appoints its own officers. The statute does not recognize any officer of the Board. It recognizes the Board.

It seems to me the advantages of centralizing the work and bringing it before the people in an authoritative report must be apparent to every one.

In regard to hearings, in no case is a hearing ever refused to any one who asks it; and yet we have no authority for it except the custom of the Board. If a person applies to the governor for redress, he sends him to us; and, if the Board is satisfied, there is nothing more to be done about it.

We are hardly aware of the politics of the members of the Board. I do not mean to say that a Democratic governor would not appoint a friend, but I never heard of a change being made on account of the politics of any one. If a man is suitable, he is reappointed, whether the Executive is Democratic or Republican.

We have nothing to do with penal institutions.

Question.— Do you have no inspection of so-called private institutions?

Mrs. RICHARDSON.— We have nothing whatever to do with them.

QUESTION.— Don't you think it is important that there should be State inspection and supervision of such institutions?

Mrs. RICHARDSON.— It would take six State Boards to inspect those of Massachusetts if they were inspected properly. As it is, we have twelve regular meetings, a great many special meetings; and we make visits of inspection, averaging once a week.

QUESTION.— Is the Board consulted by the legislature before making appropriations to private institutions?

Mrs. RICHARDSON.— We have no appropriations made to private institutions. If for any reason they receive anything from the legislature, they cease to be private. We have one institution, a cottage hospital for children, which was carried on for some time alone; but they needed more money than they could raise, and the State has at different times given them appropriations. But now it has a representative on the State Board. In the School for the Feeble-minded the funds are half provided by the State.

QUESTION.— You consider these really State institutions now?

Mrs. RICHARDSON.— We have supervision of them. Wherever the State furnishes any considerable sum of money, that institution has a representative on the board of trustees, and the State has supervision.

QUESTION.— Does the inspector of charities inspect these?

Mrs. RICHARDSON.— Regularly.

QUESTION.— Has the State supervision over almshouses where they have no insane?

Mrs. RICHARDSON.— We visit and report on them with reference to them as possible homes of the insane, as to whether they are suitable or not. But there is hardly an almshouse without any insane.

I want to say a word about our board of auxiliary visitors who visit the female wards of the State. There are about eighty women who give their services as visitors; and, when girls are put out from institutions into families, see them regularly. They visit them at least once in three months by the rules of the Board; but they really do it much oftener, according to the needs,— sometimes once a week. This is an arrangement we could not dispense with. The safety and success of placing girls in homes are largely due to the work of the auxiliary visitors. We have also some salaried visitors, who in cases of emergency do this work, and report to the Board.

QUESTION.— Doesn't the inspector of institutions under instruction from the Board visit every town poorhouse in the State within a year?

Mrs. RICHARDSON.— Yes, with reference to the fact that they may become homes for the insane.

QUESTION.— Does he not report also on the presence of children and other matters?

Mrs. RICHARDSON.— Yes; and superintendents of poorhouses take it most kindly, because it gives them an opportunity to recommend what is really needed.

Dr. EDWARD HITCHCOCK, Massachusetts.— It has been my privilege to be on the State Board since its inception, and Mrs. Richardson did not say what she could and ought to about the work of the women. We have had three women on that Board. The Bible has it that seven women shall take hold of one man. We reverse it. There are seven men who take hold of two women; and so we are helped on, and I would guarantee that, if it were put to vote, the vote would be, Keep on with the women. There might be some indelicate and unpleasant things which a woman would not like, but I do not think there have ever been half a dozen such things. Be sure your governor appoints a good Christian mother, and you will have no sort of trouble. Massachusetts — I mean *I* — don't believe in woman's voting; but I do believe in women on our boards of charities, and in their good common sense, which penetrates into things that we cannot see through. They are a great help to us.

A paper on "Boards of Charities as Boards of Control" was read by General Brinkerhoff (page 15).

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— I do not want to have you fail to comprehend the work of the State Board of Ohio. We have supervision of all charities as well as corrections. We have a paid secretary. One lady here — God bless her! — spoke of the board of county visitors. If I have ever done anything in my life that I think is of some value, it was to draft the law that created that board. They do magnificent work. Women cannot serve on our State Board under the statutes of Ohio. Unless there is an amendment to the constitution, it will not be possible to appoint them there. We have an annual convention of charities and correction for the State. We have held it three years. We have a body of men and women as large as this, and our proceedings are of great interest. We have the foremost thinkers of the State with us every year. We are educating the people of Ohio up to the highest plane in connection with charitable and correctional work; and the women are with us always, and are on our committees and engaged in our best work.

President STORRS.— We have had an annual conference of charities and correction in Michigan for twelve years.

Mr. N. S. ROSENAU, New York.— Charity knows no sex. If there be an individual anywhere who through taste and training is a good person for a State Board of Charities, that person should be appointed, be the person man or woman. We are too prone in appointing our State officials, especially those who serve without pay, to look for somebody in a community who stands at the head, who represents a following, without considering whether or not the individual has any training which fits him for the position. I want also to call your attention to the fact that an honorary office without pay is considered political spoils just as much as an office with pay.

QUESTION.— In what State?

Mr. ROSENAU.— In every State.

MANY DELEGATES.— No, sir; no, sir.

Mr. ROSENAU.— I am not talking of State Boards in particular. It is the good fortune of the States thus far that have kept this feature out of the State Boards of Charities; but I am very positive that there are many appointments made simply because a man is a good Republican or a good Democrat, and can afford to serve without pay, simply to tickle this man's vanity and to keep him in line with the party. The time has passed when we must suppose that an office which carries with it the need for charitable and mental capacity must be an unsalaried office. Philanthropy and penology are professions; and the man who devotes himself to either one remains a poor man, as the woman who devotes herself to either remains a poor woman. I would like to know why the State should be deprived of the service of the student because he cannot afford to work without pay?

Mr. CLARENCE SNYDER, Wisconsin, spoke of Wisconsin's experience in combining the Board of Supervision and Board of Control into a single board. The present Board of six members has averaged 40,000 miles each of travel in inspecting State and county institutions, and knows every one in the State. There are twenty-one county asylums. The members of the Board are salaried. They made over 1,400 visits last year to the different institutions. Has that been done in any other State? So much can be accomplished because the members give all their time to the work.

Mr. CHARLES W. BIRTWELL.— The time has come when the great undiscovered country of half-authorized and absolutely unsupervised private charities should come under the responsible notice definitely and continuously of some body appointed by the people for the two-fold kindly purpose of seeing that intelligence upon these questions reaches all departments of charitable and correctional effort and of seeing that abuses are not committed. In Massachusetts there has been recently inserted in the law a little provision which I hope may in time lead to great things. It was inserted at the solicitation of our conference of child-helping societies, representing over fifty societies. It is this: any person taking two or more children under two years of age to board must secure a license from the State Board as a boarding-house keeper for infants. That touched chiefly private persons, and meant that the State of Massachusetts was going to see to it that the people who take these children from mothers should be responsible.

Mr. C. E. FAULKNER, of Kansas, said that he wanted to draw some comparisons between the Kansas and Ohio provisions, and he hoped there would be a special session for the further discussion of this topic.

Mr. A. E. ELMORE, of Wisconsin, was also in favor of such a session.

It was decided that the discussion could be continued at a sectional meeting, for which provision had already been made.

Mr. GEORGE W. JOHNSON, of Massachusetts, thought it would be too great a burden on State Boards to inspect private institutions.

Mrs. RICHARDSON.— We have also duties with relation to the boarding-places for the insane and for the boarding out of infants. Every member of the Board has personal knowledge of all these homes. It would be absolutely impossible to add to these duties the duty of supervising private charities. In Wisconsin the members of the Board of Control are salaried, and can devote their whole time to the work, and can therefore accomplish what perhaps an unpaid board, the members of which have their business and profession to occupy their time and attention, cannot do. The objections made to a paid board of control, I think, are sound. The moment that method is adopted, that moment you make it a political office given to political parties. I think the gentleman from New York must have had an unfortunate experience, judging from what he said in reference to honorary positions being the reward for political services. I do not know how it is in New York, but I think he is greatly mistaken even there; but, as far as Massachusetts is concerned, his statement is entirely erroneous.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON, Indiana.— The State Board of Indiana exercises a function which I do not think could be exercised by a board of control, a sort of judicial function. It acts almost as a permanent committee of the legislature *ad interim*. The Board of State Charities has always been ready to give a fair and impartial hearing; and it has been so fortunate that its decisions and opinions, when expressed, have been received with attention and consideration. It has been able to give a judicial decision on every question that has come up relative to State institutions, not only on matters that have been public, but on a vast number which would have been public if they had not been nipped in the bud by the care of the State Board. I do not see how a board of control could exercise that function, because the persons whose work would have to be corrected are the creation of that board, and are removed by that board. The Board of Control itself might require inspection, but it could not inspect and exercise oversight over itself to the acceptability of the general public. The Board of State Charities, being devoid of executive function, and being composed of men and women who command the respect of the citizens of the State, is able to consider these questions, and report upon them satisfactorily. I remember a case which came up during a time of great political excitement, where, if the matter had been made public, it would have done great damage to the State of Indiana. It required good judgment and careful investigation. This was made by the State Board. The guilty person is in the State prison now, yet there was no undue publicity about it. Until the thing was over, few knew anything

about it except the members of the State Board, the governor, and the victim. A board of control could not have done that in that way. It may be a good thing for some States to have a board of control: I do not know, but I do not think it would be a good thing for Indiana.

The following telegram was read by the Secretary: —

DENVER, COL., May 24, 1894.

Our greeting to the Conference, and best wishes for the success of the meeting.

(Signed) J. J. SLOCUM, Jr.
S. S. APPEL.

The Secretary also read invitations to visit the Masonic Library; to visit Fisk University; to hold the next meeting in Grand Rapids, Mich., also one from New Orleans.

On motion the invitation to visit the Fisk University, and hold an afternoon meeting, with speeches and singing, was referred to the Committee on Business and Resolutions, Dr. Hoyt, chairman.

An invitation to hold the closing meeting at Memphis was also referred to the same committee.

Adjourned at 1 P.M.

THIRD SESSION.

Thursday night, May 24.

The Conference was called to order by the President in the vestry of the McKendree Methodist Church at 8.20 P.M. Prayer was offered by Rev. Angus McDonald.

The Business Committee reported, recommending the Conference to accept the invitation to visit Fisk University at 4 P.M. on Friday, to make short addresses and hear the singing of the students. Voted.

The subject of the evening was taken up,— "Juvenile Reformatories,"— John T. Mallalieu, the chairman of the committee having that subject in charge, presiding. A paper entitled "Review of our Work and the Outlook" was read by Mr. Mallalieu (page 156).

Mr. Mallalieu then introduced Mrs. Lucy M. Sickles, superintendent of the Industrial Home for Girls, Adrian, Mich., saying that a programme without a woman on it would be very incomplete. Mrs. Sickles read a paper on "Woman's Influence in Juvenile Reformatories" (abstract on page 164).

A paper on "General Culture in State Schools" (page 149) was read by Dr. Walter Lindley, superintendent of the Whittier State School in California. He prefaced his paper by saying that it was appropriate that the meeting to consider juvenile reformatories should be held in the McKendree Church, for it was just nine years since an address delivered there had led to the establishment of the noble State Industrial School of Tennessee.

Judge Caldwell, of Tennessee, was asked to open the discussion.

DISCUSSION ON JUVENILE REFORMATORIES.

Judge CALDWELL said there are now one hundred and twenty-five children in the Tennessee Industrial School and about fifty applications waiting. When he saw the number of juveniles in the chain gangs, to the disgrace of the people, he thought it time that the city and State should be aroused to a sense of duty and Christian responsibility toward the rising youth of the land.

General BRINKERHOFF said that he had visited the Whittier School in California, and it was one of the most delightful institutions he had ever seen. Dr. Lindley carried out into practice there the doctrines he had just preached.

QUESTION.— Has Dr. Lindley the congregate or the cottage system?

Dr. LINDLEY.— We have the congregate for the larger and the cottage for the smaller boys and girls. We should have cottages for all.

QUESTION.— How many children have you in a cottage?

Dr. LINDLEY.— We average about forty in a cottage. A smaller number would be more ideal, but from economic reasons we have about forty. Our girls' department is about a mile away from the boys' department. In the rear we are putting up an industrial building for cooking schools, tailor shops, and dressmaking-rooms. We shall also teach our girls flower gardening and vegetable gardening, poultry raising and dairy work. We propose to make the school take care of itself. We have one woman in charge of that department, and all of our teachers in the boys' department are women. We employ women all that we can.

QUESTION.— How many trades do you teach?

Dr. LINDLEY.— We have a carpenter's shop, where everything is done from drawings; a shoe shop, where the boys are taught all the parts of making a shoe,— and we manufacture all the shoes for the boys and girls; a tailor's shop, where the boys are taught to cut and make, though tailoring goes on in the girls' department also; a bakery, where they bake about six hundred loaves of bread a day. We have a cooking school, from which boys go out as cooks to hotels

and restaurants. I think it is as important to teach boys cooking as girls. We have an electric engineering department, where boys are taught to be electricians; and that department lights the buildings and attends to the steam work. We have boys in almost every electric plant on the Pacific Coast who have learned their trade with us. At the Midwinter Fair in California our man in charge was employed in the electric department, and our boys were left in charge of our plant of immense value; and during two months we never had to shut down, and there was no espionage and no officer in charge. We have our blacksmith shop, where we instruct the boys in smithing and in shoeing horses. We have a printing-office, where we publish our institution paper, *The Whittier*, and where boys learn the trade. Then we have our conservatory and propagating-houses, where they learn to be florists. We have eighty acres of oranges, lemons, limes, apricots, figs, peaches, pears, plums, and a thousand olive-trees. We have classes in type-writing and stenography.

QUESTION.— What is the expense per child for the year?

Dr. LINDLEY.— The expense is twenty-five dollars a month for each child, three hundred dollars a year. We get the best men and women that we can find, and pay them equal salaries. I hold that it is as important for us to have first-class instructors as for the State university.

QUESTION.— Did I understand you to say that you would rather let a boy smoke or chew tobacco than have to take it away from him?

Dr. LINDLEY.— Oh, no. I said I would rather a boy should smoke than disgrace him in the eyes of the world. I do not smoke myself, and I try to do everything I can to stop it.

QUESTION.— At what age are the boys received?

Dr. LINDLEY.— From eight to eighteen.

QUESTION.— Are they received by order of court?

Dr. LINDLEY.— Yes.

QUESTION.— Are they discharged at eighteen arbitrarily or on parole before?

Dr. LINDLEY.— They are committed simply to the guardianship of the school during minority. The boys will not average being in there more than two years. As soon as we feel that a boy has learned a trade or to take care of horses or to milk cows, and at the same time is strong enough morally to be trusted, and we can find a suitable place for him, we let him go. But he is under our guardianship, and he knows he is. He knows, also, that he has a home to come back to, whatever happens.

QUESTION.— You would not send a boy off without finding him employment?

Dr. LINDLEY.— No.

QUESTION.— Are the children committed for crime?

Dr. LINDLEY.— For incorrigibility and crime.

QUESTION.— When you let a boy take charge of the electric plant or any responsible position, do you pay him any salary during that time?

Dr. LINDLEY.— The first and second assistant receive five dollars a month, which is put to their credit.

QUESTION.— Do you have many applications from parents for their children which you have to deny?

Dr. LINDLEY.— Yes, from irresponsible parents.

QUESTION.— Who decides?

Dr. LINDLEY.— At the monthly meeting of our board I report, and they generally act on my recommendation.

QUESTION.— Do you bring up the matter every month?

Dr. LINDLEY.— Yes.

DELEGATE.— In Wisconsin we find it better to consider that subject only three times a year. If the question comes up too frequently, the boys are on the *qui vive* to get out, and it makes disturbance.

Dr. LINDLEY.— Probably there is something in that idea.

QUESTION.— If a parent who is well-to-do in life should apply to place his own child with you and pay for him, could you receive him, and at what price, on what terms?

Dr. LINDLEY.— He would have to pay $25 a month.

QUESTION.— He would have to come through the courts?

Dr. LINDLEY.— Yes.

QUESTION.— How many children outside of the institution are under your supervision?

Dr. LINDLEY.— At least one hundred and fifty now.

QUESTION.— And how many in the institution?

Dr. LINDLEY.— Four hundred and ten.

QUESTION.— Who looks after the one hundred and fifty?

Dr. LINDLEY.— We have a lady in San Francisco who is very competent who looks after the boys and girls of the State.

QUESTION.— Is she salaried?

Dr. LINDLEY.— Yes.

QUESTION.— How do you pay her?

Dr. LINDLEY.— She does other work for us for which she is paid. She gets $25 extra for that. Another thing in regard to trades: every boy is allowed to select the trade he will learn. Every boy who is working is therefore doing what he wants to do. I do not believe that boys are normally lazy. I believe that every boy wants to do something by the time he is old enough to do anything, but he may not want to do the thing that you want him to do.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

FOURTH SESSION.

Friday morning, May 25.

The Conference was called to order at 9.30 A.M. by the President. Prayer was offered by Rev. J. J. Van Ness.

The Reports from States were continued for half an hour under the charge of Mr. Joseph P. Byers, chairman. Mr. J. Warner Mills reported for Colorado (page 235). Mr. E. P. Bicknell reported for Indiana (page 238).

The Committee on Time and Place was announced as follows: Indiana, Hon. John R. Elder; Colorado, John H. Gabriel; Massachusetts, Edward Hitchcock; District of Columbia, O. B. Hallam; Louisiana, Dr. Michael Heymann; Kansas, C. E. Faulkner; Maryland, Jeffrey R. Brackett; Minnesota, Edward Dunn; Michigan, Alfred O. Crozier; Missouri, Thomas M. Finney; Nebraska, John Laughland; Wisconsin, Frederick D. Wilkins; Kentucky, Julius Barkhouse; Ohio, William Howard Neff; Connecticut, H. D. Smith; Pennsylvania, Rev. Thomas M. Yundt; Iowa, B. J. Miles; Illinois, Dr. C. G. Trusdell; Mississippi, Isadore Strauss; Tennessee, Judge R. R. Caldwell; New York, N. S. Rosenau.

The Committee on Organization was announced as follows: Ohio, General R. Brinkerhoff; District of Columbia, Herbert W. Lewis; Minnesota, C. P. Maginnis; Maryland, John Glenn; Kansas, M. A. Householder; Massachusetts, George W. Johnson; Colorado, J. Warner Mills; Indiana, William C. Ball; Michigan, Mrs. A. L. D'Arcambal; Missouri, L. D. Drake; Nebraska, John T. Mallalieu; Wisconsin, Andrew E. Elmore; Kentucky, Dr. John Stewart; Connecticut, W. G. Fairbanks; Pennsylvania, F. H. Nibecker; Iowa, George K. Hoover; Illinois, Mrs. Glen Wood; Tennessee, J. S. Menken; New York, Charles D. Kellogg.

On motion of Mr. F. H. Wines a committee was ordered to consider the subject of a permanent Conference badge which could be worn in the lapel or pinned on, the badge to be of metal.

Captain Benjamin F. Graves, commandant of the Michigan Soldiers' Home, offered the following: —

Resolved, By the National Conference of Charities and Correction, that the Corresponding Secretary of this organization be, and is hereby, instructed to extend a cordial invitation to the several soldiers' homes, both Federal and Confederate, National and State, to send representatives to our annual conferences, and that the management of soldiers' homes be given a place upon the programme.

Some brief discussion in the nature of question and rejoinder followed, as to whether soldiers' homes were charities; but the Conference decided by general consent that they are.

President STORRS said that the Governor of Michigan had decided in the negative.

Dr. WALTER LINDLEY, of California, said that the true meaning of charity is love, and that with this idea the soldiers' homes are certainly charities.

Mr. BARBOUR, of Michigan, favored the plan of inviting them in.

Mr. C. E. FAULKNER, Kansas.— We have in our State two thousand six hundred inmates of soldiers' homes; and I know there is necessity of their coming in connection with intelligent methods, that they may make better provision for these men. The officers of those homes should be brought into direct communication with this body.

Voted.

On motion of Mr. Alexander Johnson it was voted that a committee should be appointed by the chair on memorials of those members of the Conference who have died within the past year.

Hon. William P. Letchworth was called to the chair; and the subject for the morning was taken up,— "The Care of the Insane." A paper on "The Duty of the State to the Insane" was read by Edward N. Brush, M.D., of Maryland (page 201). Dr. Brush, as chairman of the Committee on the Care of the Insane, presided during the discussion.

DISCUSSION ON INSANITY.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.— The providing of State care for the insane and the securing of early treatment for this class, which Dr. Brush has emphasized, must appeal to all of us as being of great importance. The insane, above all others, should come under the immediate care of the State, and receive early curative treatment.

In the State of New York, before our State Care Act was passed, there came under my observation some very critical cases that might have been saved, had they received proper early treatment. At one of our county asylums I saw a man with a pale, intelligent face lying on the ground in the yard, and chained to a log of wood about five feet in length and about a foot in diameter. The chain was fastened to his foot. He was leaning on his elbow. As I looked at him, he seemed to divine my thoughts, and after a moment said, "Pretty hard, isn't it?" I thought it was pretty hard. Here was a human

being mentally dying. It was a recent case; and from what I afterwards learned there was strong probability that this person might have been restored to health under proper care and scientific medical treatment, instead of sinking into chronic insanity, as he afterwards did.

Among the many cases that came to my attention in our poorhouses was that of a young woman, formerly a well-educated teacher in Brooklyn. She was in a small yard, enclosed by a high board fence, with others of the insane, ten or twelve in all. There was not a blade of grass in the yard, and the sun was pouring down upon the bare earth. She was dressed in a gingham robe, and had only that one single garment upon her. Her feet were bare, and her hair was cut close to her head. She said to me, "You are taking notes?" I said I was making some memoranda. "What do you think of crazy people?" she asked. "Are you going to write about us?" I said I possibly might. "Well," she said, "I was once very much interested in crazy people. My father and mother once took my little brother and myself to the asylum in Rochester; and I saw the crazy people there, and gave them some pennies, and they were so pleased." Then her thoughts seemed to turn upon herself, and she said in a choking voice: "And now I am crazy myself. Here I am in this dress, and they have cut off all my hair." It was to me terrible. When I came to inquire into the circumstances, I found it was a hopeful case at first; and, if proper treatment had early been provided, in all probability this interesting young woman would have been saved to society. I have seen her many times since, but she is hopelessly insane.

We are safe in urging prompt treatment of the insane, and it is very important that there should be intelligent and conscientious State supervision over this class in all our States.

While looking to hospital treatment of the insane, we must keep in mind that the increase in the volume of insanity is tremendous, making it difficult to provide building accommodation fast enough. The heads of the great asylums in New York State speak regretfully of the large accumulation in their institutions, and of the increasing difficulty of dealing with large numbers while sustaining a high standard of hospital treatment. To overcome this condition, we must colonize from these large plants, as they are now doing in some of the States, breaking up the large institutions into cottages, where abundant light and air are readily supplied and better classification attained. The best illustration I have seen of the cottage system is at Alt-Scherbitz, in Saxony, which, with its diversified cottages and villas scattered over extensive grounds, has so little of the character of an insane asylum that one may drive through its grounds scarcely aware that he is passing a public institution.

Mr. MOTT, Minnesota.— What would Dr. Brush do with cases of senile dementia?

Dr. BRUSH.— The State ought to take care of them somewhere.

Dr. Edward Hitchcock, Massachusetts.— May I answer that question for Massachusetts? From fifteen to twenty per cent. are cases of old senile dementia. They will never come back to health. But they are well cared for. We have large hospitals where we can put these old people by themselves, and we let the acute cases come for hospital treatment.

Mr. Wines.— I have not taken the platform to discuss the admirable paper just read, but to say a word with reference to our process in wiping out an acknowledged stain upon the fair fame of the State of Illinois. Every one who knows anything of lunacy legislation in this country knows that, for twenty-five years or more, a law has been on the statute books of Illinois which requires that in all cases there should be a jury trial before the commitment of a lunatic to a hospital for the insane. For a quarter of a century philanthropic men and women have been fighting to get that law repealed; and at the last session of the legislature they did it. We now have a new statute on the subject.

In this new law we have not abolished the jury trial. There is an objection to its total abolition in the mind of lawyers and judges, who regard trial by jury as the palladium of personal liberty for the insane as well as for criminals. But trial by jury in an inquest on insanity is no longer obligatory. It is obligatory only when it is demanded by the patient or by some friend acting in his behalf. The court which holds the inquest has discretionary power in all cases to make it by jury, if, in the opinion of the judge, circumstances seem to demand that course. Otherwise, he is authorized to appoint a medical commission to make an examination at the residence of the patient; and, on their report, properly attested, the patient may be committed to a hospital for the insane.

There is a wholly new feature in the present law, to which I wish to call your attention. Instead of the authorities in charge of the insane hospital being the guardians of the lunatic during the time of his residence in an institution, the court remains his guardian during the entire time that he is legally held to be insane. He is virtually in the custody of the court, even in the hospital. The superintendent and authorities of the institution are simply the legal agents of the court with regard to him. From time to time the court must be informed of his condition and prospects; and he cannot be discharged or removed from the hospital without notification to the court. And, when he is discharged, the court must make some new order with regard to his further disposal; whether he is to be reinstated in his liberty and property rights, or, if not, what steps shall be taken for his protection and the protection of the public; whether he shall be sent to an asylum for the chronic insane or returned to his home; whether he shall be allowed his personal freedom or whether his family may exercise physical restraint over him.

I am inclined to think that the lunacy law of Illinois, as it now

stands, more thoroughly preserves the balance between the medical and the legal rights of the patient and protects the patient and society than has been done by any statute yet enacted in any State. I am glad to have this opportunity to call your attention to it, and I trust that this law may be carefully studied and criticised by those capable of forming an intelligent expert opinion concerning it. Of course, time will prove its practical merits and defects; but we have great faith that Illinois, after having been so long at the tail of the procession, will now march at its head for some time to come.

QUESTION.— What do you do with a criminal when the plea of insanity is found in his favor?

Mr. WINES.— We have provided a criminal insane asylum; and if he is declared to be insane, pending a trial on some criminal charge, he is sent to that asylum. We have at last separated our criminal and non-criminal insane, to the relief of our institutions and the great satisfaction of friends of the non-criminal patients confined in them.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— I want to say a word with regard to wrong commitments. I have visited public institutions for sixteen years. We have a daily average of five thousand insane people, and we have yet to find the first case where a person had been wrongfully committed. I do not believe there is any particular danger in that direction. The problem of the early commitment of the acutely insane is a problem I have studied for years and years, and it is yet unsolved. The great difficulty is not that we get people in who ought not to be there, but that we do not get them there soon enough. People are slow to acknowledge that their friends are insane. Hence we do not get them into our asylums until the disease is practically chronic. The great problem is, How shall we get possession of these people? I would like to get them for observation before actual commitment. It is a terrible thing to be committed by the law. I have known some dreadful cases where persons on the borderland of insanity had the brand of insanity put on them by the court; and, when they came back into the community, the world said such and such a man has been in the insane asylum, and that shuts him out from the employment of the world. There ought to be some way by which we can secure the observation of such people. We have in Ohio an asylum which fulfils the requirements of Mr. Letchworth, such as he found in Germany. That is the segregate asylum in Toledo, where we have a village of forty houses; and, out of the twelve or thirteen hundred people there, eight hundred meet together in a common dining-room, and it is as secure and quiet as possible. You would not know but you were at a hotel.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.— In regard to what General Brinkerhoff says respecting the reluctance of people to send their friends to asylums, and deferring to do so until it is too late, I think we should have some system of voluntary admission into our asylums, as they have in Massachusetts and also in Scotland. In Scotland patients can

enter an asylum as they would enter a general hospital, and, by giving three days' notice, their friends can take them away. To gain admission, it is only necessary to apply to the Lunacy Commission for a permit, naming the asylum to which entrance is desired. Such persons are not registered as lunatics. Should they become insane while in the asylum, they may be committed in the same manner as other insane persons. In this way the benefit of early treatment is secured, and I think it would be an incalculable advantage if this method were more generally adopted.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— What we want to do is to solve the problem, so that we can have temporary care without going into the asylum.

Miss LATHROP.— Mr. Wines omitted to speak of one fact. There is a provision for voluntary commitment in the Illinois law; but it seems to me that people need to be educated to realize that insanity is a disease, and that it is no more a disgrace than typhoid fever. I want to ask Mr. Wines if he thinks it possible to have an ideal hospital, with as large a population as most of ours have.

Mr. WINES.— I did not undertake to give a complete account of the lunacy legislation of Illinois. What Miss Lathrop has just said is true; and it is an excellent feature of the law, in my judgment. The execution of the law is intrusted to the Board of State Charities. A copy of every legal paper with regard to every insane patient must be filed with that Board. It must have notice of the discharge of every patient. If the courts are disposed to be inactive, it is the duty of the State Board to see that the court makes the proper order for the disposal of every insane patient discharged; if restored to reason, giving him his rights; if not, saying what shall be done with him, but assuming judicial responsibility for his treatment, and protecting him if he needs it. As to the overgrowth of institutions for the insane, there is no question that it is a crying evil, which demands a drastic remedy.

Dr. BRUSH.— That is exactly what I asked for,— a central supervising board that should look after all the rights of the insane. We must do something with our large institutions if an examination of the inmates would show that about ten per cent. only belong to the recoverable cases. But I would not give up hope for twenty years. As long as there is life, there is hope, except in brain degeneration, where there can be no restoration of course. But, if they are cases who can go out and live in families, they are not the cases that require hospital care. It is the recent patients that require nursing, as much as patients with typhoid fever or pneumonia.

An invitation to visit the Day House for the children of working-women was read.

Dr. George H. Knight extended an invitation to hold the next

meeting in New Haven, Conn., the invitation being signed by the Governor of Connecticut, the mayor of New Haven, and many prominent citizens.

On motion the invitation was referred to the Business Committee.

Mr. F. D. Wilkins, Wisconsin. — As president of the State Conference of Charities of Wisconsin and superintendent of an insane asylum, I should perhaps say a word in regard to the provision for the insane in my State. We have twenty-five county asylums for chronic insane, each with from one hundred to a hundred and twenty-five inmates.

A letter was received from Governor John T. Rich, of Michigan, saying: —

I am informed that the city of Grand Rapids will extend an invitation to your organization to hold its next annual meeting in that city. I sincerely hope this invitation will be accepted, and will say that the city of Grand Rapids will extend to you a most cordial welcome. Their hotel accommodations and railroad facilities are second to none in or out of the State; and a more hospitable, wide-awake, thrifty people is not to be found. I believe, if your organization sees fit to accept this invitation, that you will not only not regret it, but will always be thankful that your meeting was thrown in such a favorable location.

The Committee on a Permanent Badge was announced, as follows: Messrs. F. H. Wines, Mrs. M. M. Betts, J. W. Mills, and John M. Glenn.

Mr. Alexander Johnson was appointed Committee on Memorials.

Adjourned at 12 M.

FIFTH SESSION.

Friday night, May 25.

The Conference was called to order at 8.15 P.M. in the McKendree Church, Mr. Wines in the chair. The subject for the evening was the Report of the Committee on Charity Organization, Dr. James W. Walk, chairman.

The report of the committee was read by Dr. Walk (page 19).

ORGANIZED CHARITY.

Dr. WALK.— I have been requested to make a brief address on what appears to me to be the essentials of the organized charity system,— in other words, the principles of organized charity. In doing so, I want to be as plain and conversational as possible.

The system of organized charities is new, in part, but in greater part old. Very few of its principles are in themselves novel. What is new about it is the way in which these principles are combined and connected together. Just as every invention in the mechanical arts is but the combination and application of the five mechanical powers, or some of them, so old principles well understood for thousands of years, when recombined and rearranged, give rise to new systems; and in this sense only is the system called "organized charity" a new thing.

There are many matters connected with organized charity which are not necessary to the system, but I am going to try to point out what are generally regarded as the essentials.

We have to consider five things: (1) investigation; (2) registration; (3) co-operation; (4) adequate relief; (5) permanency of results. These seem to me to be the essentials of the charity organization system. Now what do we mean by these terms?

1. *Investigation.*— By investigation we mean that every case of distress, from whatever cause that distress arises, becomes a problem for study; and, in order that it may be relieved, ameliorated, or cured, it must be thoroughly investigated. The opinion is prevalent that this investigation, which we insist on, is for the purpose chiefly of protecting the community from impostors. That is a mistake. While the desire to protect the community does enter largely into our motive, yet that is not an adequate conception of the purpose of investigation. The investigation of the family in distress, that we desire to make, is precisely similar to the investigation which the skilled physician wishes to make of the state of the patient brought to him for treatment. We investigate, not because we want to pry into the private history of families or make public the secrets of their individual life, but because we must know accurately before we can act efficiently. Therefore, we insist that in every case of distress a careful, accurate, thorough investigation shall be made, preceding any extended measure of relief,— not by any means that relief should be refused when a family is in immediate and dire distress. There may be many cases in which help must be given within an hour; but, before any extended measures of relief are undertaken, investigation should have its place.

This investigation, we think, should be made by expert agents as far as possible, because, like all other work requiring skill, it cannot be done by amateurs in a satisfactory fashion.

2. *Registration.*— By that we mean that the salient points that have been developed by our investigation shall be registered in such a way as to be easy of reference; that in a large city there should be a registration of all the poverty of the city. This registration should be confidential, not open to curiosity-seekers, not to be published in the newspapers, but open only to those whose motive is the good of the poor. There is no danger of any undue publicity, because the names of people who are applicants for charity are as securely buried in these registers as if you placed them in the report of a Congressional committee. The use of the registration is that different charitable societies shall not go on repeating the same kind of work for the same cases, that every society shall have the advantage of the information gained by the central society, and that that information shall be kept in accessible form. There are cities that have registration amounting to tens and hundreds of thousands of cases a year; but I have yet to hear of a single instance, in any of the cities with whose work I am familiar, where the information thus recorded has been improperly used.

3. *Co-operation.*— The different charitable agencies of a city ought to work together. Now, that is so obvious that it should scarcely require argument; and yet we find all over the country cities in which the different charitable associations work on wholly independent lines. They are totally ignorant of the operations of each other, so that it is possible for an impostor to receive continuous relief from two or three sources at the same time.

Co-operation is necessary for every great enterprise. What makes the difference between an army and a mob? It is that the soldiers all work under one plan and the direction of a single will, while the members of a mob work each one on his own responsibility. We claim that this system of co-operation among societies will benefit them in every way, saving their resources, extending their usefulness, and, what is perhaps best of all, cultivating in all charity workers an *esprit de corps* which will go far to elevate their work above the plane of drudgery and disheartening toil.

4. *Adequate Relief.*— Some charity organization societies give no relief. They depend on other societies. Others give relief in cases of emergency. It is worth while remembering that the London society, which was organized in 1869, before the founding of any American societies, does give relief, not habitually, but under certain circumstances. The great and important matter is that relief, when given to a poor family, should be adequate, sufficient to put that family out of the reach of want. The antithesis of this is the wretched system of doles.

Suppose the total expenses of a family are five dollars a week, and suppose they earn two dollars. Then the deficiency is three dollars a week. If you want to deal properly with that family, you must bring in from some source three dollars. If the necessities of the

family require five dollars and their resources are two, you must bring in three if you would elevate them above the necessity of begging and suffering; and you must get that relief from one or another of the sources in co-operation with which you work. The system of unorganized charity, in which each society tries to cover the whole field, and does not co-operate with any other society, results in no society being able to help anybody adequately. Such associations give fifty cents, or perhaps a dollar, or even as little as twenty-five cents a week to each applicant, leaving the poor to supplement this by begging. This is to encourage pauperism. We should always make relief adequate if we undertake to give relief at all.

5. *The Permanency of Results.*— Our eyes should always be fixed upon the purpose to elevate the family above the need of further relief. In the great majority of cases, this can be done, especially when it is a family made up of children. In the case of individuals who are broken down by old age or incurable sickness, then the duty before us is to charitably and gently and kindly provide for them for the remainder of their lives by pensions or asylum care. But in the great majority of cases, where we have people in temporary distress, our purpose should be to lift them out of it. The condition of distress is abnormal. It is not right, not natural, that people should be dependent on others; and, if they are, it is a morbid condition. We want to cure it.

Now, these five things I consider to be the essentials in the organized charity system.

Other things are frequently added. Perhaps the most important is the friendly visiting by ladies or gentlemen who go among the poor as friends; and that is a most valuable adjunct. Then the penny savings-banks, wood-yards, and wayfarers' lodges are valuable adjuncts, and are quite common, some societies using one, and some another; and, in large centres of population, all are often employed. Still, the essentials of the system are those that I have given; and any society that includes them is fairly within the pale of organized charity.

There are nearly a hundred societies in this country claiming to operate on these principles. Their work has grown up within twenty years, and most of them have been organized within the last decade. That they are accomplishing a great work for the amelioration of the conditions of distress among our fellows, and diminishing pauperism, no one can doubt who will give even cursory attention to the statistics of the work they have done. I hope that in this city, and in every other great city, those whose hearts are moved by a sincere love for the poor will inaugurate such measures as will thoroughly organize all charitable efforts, bearing in mind that being business-like in your methods does not prevent your being charitable in your motives, nor prevent the cultivation of the noblest sentiments of the heart.

QUESTION.— How would you start a society?

Dr. WALK.— I think the best thing to do, when a city desires to organize its charities, is for some lady or gentleman to send out invitations to half a dozen people to meet at his or her house, perhaps at dinner. That is a good place to start. Then make out a list of persons to whom to send out cards of invitation. Select those most interested in the care of the poor, managers of philanthropic societies, making a few omissions. There are always some people who are managers that it may be well not to invite to the first meeting. Invite those that you know will be able to work harmoniously with other people. Some good people can never work in double harness, and you want those that can work in a six-horse team. Call to the meeting twenty-five or thirty people. There are always twenty-five or thirty in every community who have their hands on the charitable sentiment of that community. Decide upon your plans, lay out your work, agitate the thing. Then call a public meeting at a time, if possible, when the public mind is awake to the necessity of such work,— not in the middle of July.

At your public meeting have your list of managers and everything carefully prepared, and then start your society. By all means have everything carefully arranged, and your officers selected in advance. A good many societies have had a great deal of trouble from having antagonistic elements within the body. Better a hundred enemies outside than one traitor within.

The following papers were then read on "Methods of Organized Charity as Tested by Times of Industrial Depression," by Charles D. Kellogg, of New York; by James F. Jackson, of St. Paul; by Dr. J. W. Walk, of Philadelphia; by Philip W. Ayres, of Cincinnati; by J. R. Brackett, of Baltimore (pages 21–67).

A paper by Professor R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago, entitled "Facts and Methods of Outdoor Relief," was also presented (page 106).

DISCUSSION ON CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

Mr. FREDERIC ALMY, Buffalo, N.Y.— In a few words I will outline what was done in Buffalo during the past winter. A fund of $65,000 for the employment of labor was raised by a committee known as the Citizens' Relief Committee, which was appointed by the mayor at the request of the Charity Organization Society. The work selected consisted of breaking stone, filling the State ditch, and constructing a park boulevard. Of the $65,000, only a little over $1,000 was spent in administration; while the balance was paid out in wages to 6,277 men, at the rate of 70 cents a day. During the first three weeks

work was given by the Overseer of the Poor to all who applied for it, in order of registration, with the expectation that this rate of pay would operate as a labor test. It was found that the Germans, Americans, and Irish did not care to work at that rate unless need compelled it, but that the Poles and Italians found it an attractive offer; and soon the work was practically monopolized by them. Investigations by the Charity Organization Society showed that, of 3,450 men whose names were enrolled upon the labor list during these three weeks, over 2,000 could not be found at the addresses given by them or did not require relief; and, for the balance of nine weeks during which this city labor was given, no one was entered upon the labor list without a written recommendation from the Charity Organization Society or some other proper authority. During these last nine weeks about two-thirds of the work that was given was upon the recommendation of our society, and after an investigation by us.

The Dollar Relief Society gave sewing continuously during the entire winter to a large number of women. The headquarters of this society were in the building of the Charity Organization Society, and work was given after investigation by our society.

Another important agency of the last winter was the *Courier* Relief Supply. It was found that the charitable bodies of Buffalo had not sufficient means to meet the existing emergency, and one of the newspapers of Buffalo organized what was called the *Courier* Relief Supply. Those who had supplies of any kind of clothing, or of anything else that might be of service, were requested to notify the proprietor of a certain livery stable, who sent for the articles and distributed them without charge, under the direction of the *Courier* Relief Supply, to all who could present an order indorsed by any charitable society in good standing. Over twenty thousand dollars' worth of coal, clothing, and provisions was given out upon 4,243 orders, which represents relief to as many as 4,000 different families, or about 20,000 individuals. The Charity Organization Society had fear that there might be much duplication, and that the same people would be helped over and over again; but a register was kept, and it was found that, of the 4,000 orders given, as many as 80 per cent. went to families who received help but once, 9 per cent. to families who were helped but twice, and that only 2 per cent. of the whole number went to families who obtained more than two orders for supplies. Consequently, both the work given and the supplies given last winter in Buffalo were, to a very considerable extent, given as would have been recommended by the Charity Organization Society.

A valuable feature of the work of the society last winter was a loan fund of over $3,000, from which loans were made, usually on security at 4 per cent. interest. It is encouraging to report that a fair proportion of what was loaned is now coming back to us as the loans mature.

In order to secure the co-operation of other agencies, nearly every

religious and charitable society in Buffalo was asked to meet with the Charity Organization society; and the result was that the co-operation which we have received has been ten times that of any previous year. These societies gave aid on their own lines, but used the records of our society as a bureau of information, and reported to some extent the relief which they gave, so that overlapping was hindered, if not prevented. The office of secretary of the Charity Organization Society was vacant during last winter; and the work fell chiefly upon Mr. Ansley Wilcox, chairman of the Executive Committee, and Miss Marion I. Moore, the assistant secretary. It was so well done that the society was greatly benefited by the year's work, and will be stronger for subsequent work if it can hold the co-operation which it then secured.

Mr. ROSENAU.— I desire to make one statement with reference to New York. With regard to the funds raised by the Tammany Hall District Associations, some were distributed by them directly, and I presume more harm than good was done thereby; but in a large number of instances the funds were distributed by regularly organized relief agencies. These facts are within my own knowledge, because the funds of the society which I represent were swelled considerably by contributions from the Tammany District Associations and the Citizens' Fund.

In the midst of the self-congratulation which naturally comes from the consciousness of an unusually hard winter's work well done, instead of asking ourselves how much did we do, suppose we ask ourselves how much did we not do. The destitution of the past winter was enough to break hearts of oak. When a school-teacher comes to one, and says, "I cry every day because my children are growing thinner before my eyes," we know what that means. I do not pretend to be able to solve the question, but it is a question that we must take home to ourselves. We must ask ourselves how much have we failed to do.

CHARLES D. KELLOGG.— I wish to call the attention of the Conference to a recent enterprise set on foot by the Charity Organization Society of New York, and which has culminated in the creation of a Provident Loan Society for the transaction of the business of loaning on personal property to deserving poor persons who need to borrow for legitimate purposes. It is in reality a well-regulated pawn-shop, intended to be carried on on strictly business principles, and to give every possible advantage to the borrowers consistent with safety. The ruling charge of pawnbrokers in New York is 3 per cent. per month, with often additional expenses; while the Provident Loan Society's rate is 1 per cent., without any additional charges. The effort was commenced some two years ago, and a carefully prepared report upon the subject was included in our society's Annual Report for 1892. The recent industrial depression brought to the surface in a marked manner the necessity for facilities whereby the poor could

bridge over times of distress without incurring the outrageous charges of the ordinary pawnbrokers; and, the matter being taken up afresh with vigor, $100,000 was promptly subscribed by friends of the society, and a special charter was procured from the legislature then in session, giving the society all the benefits of all the provisions of the laws of the State concerning pawnbrokers, except that it is not required to obtain a license or file a bond. No member or trustee of the society receives any compensation for his services. All money is made up by subscriptions for which no stock is issued, and upon which not more than lawful interest can be returned to the subscriber. No transfer of interest can be made without consent of the trustees, and as fast as the profits of the business warrants it is intended to reduce the rate of interest charged to the borrowers. In order that the benevolent aspect of the society shall be continuously assured, the president of each of the following societies are *ex-officio* members of the society,— namely, the Charity Organization Society, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, and the United Hebrew Charities; and it is provided that one-fifth of the trustees shall always be elected upon the nomination of the Charity Organization Society.

The office of the society for loaning on pledges has been open but a single week, but has already begun to do a large business, and chiefly for a class of persons who are not in the habit of patronizing pawnbrokers. It is not intended at present to make any loans upon chattel mortgages on household furniture, that branch of the business being kindly undertaken by St. Bartholomew's Parish House under the control of Rev. David H. Greer, D.D., rector of the Protestant Episcopal church of that name.

The Committee on Time and Place reported as follows, through the chairman, Mr. John R. Elder: —

A full meeting of the Committee on Time and Place was held at the committee-room. Invitations were presented from New Orleans, La., Grand Rapids, Mich., and New Haven, Conn., inviting the next meeting of the Conference at their cities. Each city was ably represented on the committee, and the claims of each presented. After a full discussion, on a ballot vote, New Haven was selected, which was afterwards made unanimous; and I was directed to inform the Conference that the committee recommend that the next session of the Conference be held in New Haven, Conn., in May, 1895, and that the days of the month be fixed by the Executive Committee.

Mr. Elder moved the adoption of the report.

Mr. A. O. Crozier, of Grand Rapids, Mich., said that he had hoped the Conference would accept the invitation to Grand Rapids,

but, since the committee had reported adversely to that, he would accept the inevitable, and second the motion to go to New Haven.

The report of the committee was unanimously adopted.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

SIXTH SESSION.

Saturday morning, May 26.

The Conference was called to order at 9.30 A.M. by the President. A large exhibit of the handiwork of the feeble-minded was displayed upon the stage. Nine State institutions had contributed,— Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, and Minnesota. The exhibits consisted of many kinds of needlework, both ornamental and useful, shoes, brushes, mats, rugs, baskets, hammocks, hangings, etc.

Prayer was offered by Rev. D. C. Kelley, D.D.

The first half-hour was devoted to hearing Reports from States, Mr. Byers chairman of the committee.

Miss Julia C. Lathrop, a member of the State Board of Charities of Illinois, reported for that State.

Miss LATHROP.— I came here not knowing the customs or requirements of the Conference, and am not able to offer any formal report from Illinois. As a member of the present Board of Public Charities of our State, I want to say that we came to our work about a year ago, all of us without previous experience, and that our attention has thus far been fully occupied in trying to acquaint ourselves with the institutions which the statute directs us to visit, and in endeavoring to learn the provisions needed for the dependent and defective classes of our State. There are now twelve State charitable institutions, — four hospitals for the insane, an asylum for insane criminals, schools for the deaf and dumb, the feeble-minded, and the blind, an eye and ear infirmary, soldiers' and sailors' home, a soldiers' orphans' home, and a new reformatory for girls, which, we trust, will be so wisely administered that it shall be, in fact, an educational and reformatory institution.

We are everywhere impressed with the valuable service which has been performed for Illinois in the last twenty-four years by Dr. Wines as secretary of the Board of Charities. To continue the work of obtaining adequate State care for the insane, necessary teaching and care for defectives, and a proper supervision of the County Charities, is our immediate task.

There has been some discussion in these meetings as to women upon Boards of Charities; and, as the first woman to be appointed

on the State Board of Illinois, I trust I shall not seem out of order if I venture to say something about what I regard as the opportunities and the duties of women on State Boards. I feel that it is desirable that women should be on Boards of Charities, because there are a great many women under the care of the State, and hence under supervision of such Boards, but more because, as individuals, I think there are increasing numbers of women who could contribute good service to the State if on these Boards. I do not believe that solely because we are women we shall necessarily have any more light or inspiration on the Board than the men have. I have a suspicion that the common dust out of which men and women were made enjoyed no spiritual transmutation when it passed through Adam's rib. I fear that women go on State Boards with much the same moral and intellectual limitations that men do. Perhaps we need even more than they to constantly guard against unfairness, and against the sentimentality to which, I think, women are peculiarly susceptible.

It is a very serious matter that women should go on these Boards fully realizing their responsibilities as individuals. I am sure that we do not monopolize any of the finer qualities of human nature. The paper we heard the other evening from the head of the Whittier School was a demonstration that the powers of tenderness and sympathy and adaptation are those that belong to choice individuals, and not to man or woman as such.

Mr. MICHAEL HEYMANN, Louisiana.— No statistics for our report from Louisiana were given by the Catholics. The Jewish population gave a full report. The first thing of importance for us is to have a State Board of Charities. Then we need to abolish the contract system for convicts and to establish a reformatory for women and children. A Protestant preacher, an active man, has started a Waif's Home, where he receives children who have been cruelly treated by their parents. It is a very noble work. But that is only a beginning of what should be done. I was much interested in what Miss Lathrop said about women on State Boards. Certainly, when we have our Board, we want ladies on it. They are well adapted to such work, and I think the most of those present here would fully believe that there should be women on all State Boards of Charities.

Mr. J. R. BRACKETT, Maryland.— Our legislature, the wisdom of our State, has just been in session; and it will not sit again for two years. We have no State Board of Charities. During this last session of the legislature application was made to have an addition put to the House of Correction, that the women might be entirely separate from the part where the men are; but it was not done. The effort was made by the Prisoners' Aid Association. The State Board of Lunacy asked for an appropriation to add quarters for epileptics at the School for the Feeble-minded; but it was not given. What has been done? The King's Daughters are taking steps to open a home for epileptics. A movement being made to plant a sort

of Gutenburg system for pool-selling, near Baltimore, a bill was introduced in the legislature to prevent it. The Society for the Prevention of Vice took it up; and they opened the eyes of those wise men, and the bill was passed with a great deal of interest. Bills were passed against obscene literature, and the evils of child labor and the sweating system. A dipsomaniac law for the treatment of habitual drunkards was passed, and one for suspension of sentences in certain cases, especially in case of juvenile offenders. And at the request of the State Board of Lunacy an appropriation was made for the beginning of a second State Insane Hospital. Perhaps the most interesting thing to many of us is the advance which is made in Maryland in the idea that paupers, seeking shelter and food, and prisoners supported in county jails, should be made to work. A beginning only has been made in that; but, through the Central Relief Committee's work in Baltimore last winter, there were no free lodging-places in the city, and every man who begged on the street could be accommodated with food and lodging if he were willing to do a half-hour's work for it. At the last session of the legislature two counties had bills passed to allow them to work the prisoners in their jails. But the old historic truth that law without public sentiment is not worth a cent will probably be illustrated again; for one county which got such a law a year or two ago has, through indifference of officials, relaxed all efforts to enforce it. The message which Maryland may bring to this Conference and the people of Nashville can certainly be that any such body in a community as a charity organization society, a prisoners' aid association, a society for the prevention of vice, etc., can do a tremendous work in educating public opinion, and, thank goodness, in educating the legislature and public officials, also.

Mr. F. H. Wines called attention to the valuable reports of the International Conference of Charities held in Chicago in 1893. These volumes are now passing through the press. Mr. Wines also reported from the Committee on Badges the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:—

Resolved, That the Executive Committee be, and hereby is, instructed to procure designs and estimates for a silk or metal button, in such form as to be capable of attachment to the dress of a lady or gentleman, to be the permanent badge of the members of this Conference; and that, in case any design which may be offered is accepted at the price asked, the Executive Committee is authorized to order the manufacture of a proper number of the same, and place them on sale.

Mr. Brackett presented certain papers from Maryland with reference to postal savings-banks, which on motion were referred to the Business Committee.

An invitation was read to visit the Mission Home at three o'clock and attend services there.

Mr. Brackett offered the following resolution : —

Resolved, That the Committee on Organization be asked to consider the feasibility of appointing a permanent committee to collect and collate the reports from States ; also that they be asked to consider the possibility of asking those in charge of the Conference of Charities and Correction to see that, in so far as possible, general excursions shall not be arranged in such a way as to conflict with the meetings.

The President said it had been understood that no excursions were to be made up at Nashville until Tuesday.

Mr. Brackett said that distinguished gentlemen who came from long distances were unable to get a reasonably large meeting of their sections on account of members being gone on outside excursions. They were now asked to visit a stock farm this afternoon. What are we here for ?

The President suggested that it was the fault of the members. Those who left the meetings to go on excursions did not seem to know what they were here for.

An invitation was read to attend the G. H. Thomas Post, G. A. R., exercises at Fisk University.

The subject for the day was then taken up, "The Care of the Feeble-minded." Dr. A. C. Rogers, chairman. A paper by Miss Alice J. Mott, of Faribault, Minn., was then read by her father, Hon. R. A. Mott (page 168). A paper on "Manual Training for the Feeble-minded" was read by Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows (page 179).

A paper on "The Public Care of Epileptics" was read by Hon. William P. Letchworth (page 188).

DISCUSSION ON THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

Mr. Alexander Johnson, Superintendent of School for Feeble-minded, Fort Wayne, Ind.— Our State has made partial and incomplete provision for the feeble-minded, imbecile, epileptic, and paralytic. We recognize that there is nothing more economical than to make complete provision for them. The census report shows that there are something like six thousand in Indiana alone, and we know of but about a thousand receiving care. We hope to see the day when all the idiots and imbeciles shall have proper provision made for them, when they shall be taken early, and shall have every oppor-

tunity for training, so that the very small per cent. that is capable of being made self-supporting citizens shall be fitted to be sent out into the world, and the remainder (seventy-five, ninety-five, or even the whole hundred per cent., if it shall prove so), who cannot be returned to the world, shall be provided for by the State in custodial institutions, not to be supported in idleness, but to be made useful, and therefore cheerful, happy, and contented, and as near self-sustaining as may be. That is what I hope our State and every State in the Union will do, and, in doing it, recognize that they are doing that which is wisest and best for the good of the world politically, economically, and morally.

Mr. H. H. HART, Minnesota.— The first paper read to-day represents the best thought of the State of Minnesota on this subject. The State of Minnesota, I am proud to say, is making more provision for this class of our citizens than any other State of the Union in proportion to the population. It firmly believes in this policy which has been set before you. We believe, with reference to the insane, that the State should take care of them; and we are still the only State which has none under county care. They are all in State institutions. We are also committed to the policy of caring for the feeble-minded children,— not only training the younger ones, so far as they may be developed, but we are fully committed to the plan of custodial care of the older ones. It is a humanitarian work. It is a work which appeals to sentiment. There is an essential difference in the demands of this class and of other unfortunate children. For dependent children and for blind and deaf children we have gotten away from the asylum idea. We have "State schools" for them, and we all believe that we should get them out of institutions and into good homes as fast as possible. But those who have given intelligent study to this subject believe that the contrary is true with regard to the feeble-minded. For the best interests of the State we must get them out of the homes and into the institutions. This distinction ought to be kept in mind, that there may be no confusion.

I visited the institution for the feeble-minded at Fort Wayne on my way here, and I was delighted with the atmosphere of the place. I went into the hospital where a child was sick with pneumonia. As we came into the room, the child said to the superintendent's wife, "Mamma, I want you"; and that is the spirit of that institution. Indeed, it seems to be the spirit which permeates the people engaged in this peculiar work. I do not know any more delightful people than those engaged in the care of the feeble-minded. I do not know why it is, but there is developed a spirit of kindness and love which is amazing. As I go into the wards of those institutions, and see the children gathered about, and have them come up to me in the way they do, it is very delightful. I have been familiar with a very different atmosphere. For eleven years I have been an inspector of almshouses, and I have seen these children under almshouse care; and I

know of no more pitiable sight than a feeble-minded child in an almshouse, associated with paupers, neglected, filthy, untaught, untrained, unhappy. When you see that same child brought into the institution, it becomes happy; for, as has been said, they are naturally happy in disposition. I have been delighted with the papers presented this morning; and I am glad of all the work that is done in caring for these children, and especially in caring for the young women, who need custodial care to prevent the reproduction of their kind. As soon as we have come to a higher plane of thought in regard to this, we shall diminish our crime population; for a great many criminals are really feeble-minded. No one can doubt to-day that a large percentage of prisoners who are morally imbecile or insane ought to have been recognized and cared for from childhood in an institution for the feeble-minded, instead of being allowed to commit crimes and to be committed to penal institutions. A few months ago a teacher in a public school consulted me about a little boy with a dreadful disposition. He was constantly committing cruel acts. He would steal and lie, and there seemed to be no appeal to his moral nature. I gave her Dr. Kerlin's paper on "The Moral Imbecile" to read; and she said, on reading it, that she knew now what was the matter with the child. Later a man called on me to consult about a child, and I went up to see it. It proved to be the same child of whom the teacher had spoken. He ought to be committed to an institution to-morrow. He will otherwise end in a penal institution.

Dr. KNIGHT.— I hope that the members of this Conference will not get a wrong idea of the percentage of the children who are feeble-minded who reach the point of self-support. The opinion of the oldest superintendents in this work, who have given care to all grades of the feeble-minded, which includes what we call imbeciles and epileptics also, is that twenty to thirty per cent. of all these children reach that point where they are capable of supporting themselves. But I have never heard the statement made, nor do I believe that any of these children ever acquire or reach the point where they are capable of exercising what we call good common sense. They must have supervision, even when they leave the institution; but, under that supervision, they are capable of earning their own support, and of doing something for the welfare of their fellow-beings, instead of being mere consumers in an institution.

J. Q. A. STEWART.— I think Mrs. Barrows deserves great credit for the industry she has exercised in collecting this exhibit. I want to say a word only in reference to this industrial display and the methods of producing these things in institutions for the feeble-minded. I believe that I was perhaps the first superintendent who thought of endeavoring to get some one thing that would enable a feeble-minded child to make his own living, to a greater or less extent. I believed then that I could send out more than fifty per cent. to take care of themselves, but I am getting rapidly out of that idea.

I have been working at this sixteen years; and, the older I grow, the more I believe that the feeble-minded child can never be sent away to support itself. They can be made to make these articles; and you can sell them, and get back the material and pay the teacher, and perhaps have a little profit besides. When I took charge of the Kentucky institution, I found in it ten or twelve girls who had remained in the institution nearly as long as they could. The law forced them out, for they could remain but ten years. It was inhuman. I said to the commission: Are these girls to be turned out at the end of ten years? They are able to sew perhaps, and they can read and write a little, and they know something about figures; but they have no sort of industrial trade that will enable them to earn a living when they get away. They were orphans, with no one to care for them. I said: I will never turn them out in the world. I will be turned out, but I will not turn these girls out. Give me a laundry, I said, and a sewing-room; and I will teach them to be useful to the people to whom they go if they have to go. The commission did so. They gave me a laundry, a sewing-room for the girls and shoe shops and carpenter shops for the boys; and that was the industrial department of the Kentucky school. It was expensive at first; but in a few years they were paying for their materials and paying the teacher, and it was not costing the State a single dollar, and in a few years a few hundred dollars were put into the treasury of the institution by their labor. The law then was that the child should go out at the end of ten years. You see that that was wrong and inhuman. I brought before the legislature a little girl six or seven years old, just admitted. I also put before them a boy of eighteen, a great, big, stalwart fellow, who could have broken blocks on a pike; and I said: When this little girl is sixteen, you will turn her out, though she has no one to care for her. This stalwart fellow just received into the school you will keep till he is twenty-eight. Fortunately, that law was repealed a day or two after that. Our State law is a very peculiar one. I am ashamed to tell you of our idiot law. I have been sixteen years trying to get it repealed; but it can't be done, because there are so many men interested in keeping it in existence, there are so many counties that receive from $3,000 to $4,000 for their idiots. You talk to them about repealing that law, and they will nearly mob you. They will point to you, and say, There is a fellow that has a school that is costing the State $200 a year for each child, and he wants us to give up our little $75 that we get for each idiot. And so we cannot get the legislature to introduce a bill to repeal that law. There used to be a scalp law by which every one who brought in a fox scalp got $2.50, and that lasted until people took to raising foxes. Now there is a premium offered for idiots. The State says, We will give you $75 if you will bring an idiot into this court. To return to the industrial side of our work. It is the feature of our schools. It interests the child, and you can teach it better in the schools if you have industrial training also.

Dr. KNIGHT. — It gives me great pleasure to open the discussion upon the very able and extremely valuable paper just given by Mr. Letchworth. As superintendents of feeble-minded institutions, we are too often forced by necessity to write or speak upon the most urgent side of the question of epilepsy as it comes under our observation; namely, the need of more room or proper buildings, and too often the imperative necessity of getting just room alone for the housing of this class who throng our institutions, whether or not suitable provision has been made for them. Therefore, it is doubly gratifying when one so well fitted as Mr. Letchworth, by observation and keen personal interest, takes the time and trouble to prepare a paper dealing with the historical side of the movement in favor of a special provision for this class. However, there are several points to consider before fully indorsing the colony plans for caring for epileptics alone.

An important one is the point of view of the tax-payer. I have confidence enough in the humanity of even the most ignorant tax-payer in our country to believe that, if he could be brought face to face with the condition of an epileptic before and after special treatment, he would be converted from a grumbler into a champion of the reform; but this is an impossibility in most instances. What he sees is the site, usually a fine one, the abundant land, the suitable buildings which enlightened charity provides. These, and what to the common workingman looks like luxury, are the things which impress the majority of the public; and they claim that the unfortunates are so only in name. This is not the first time that the cause of the epileptic has come before this Conference. The disease may, and does, stand as an unknown quantity in the medical world; but its victims are a terrible fact in the experience of every superintendent of a feeble-minded institution.

Believing, as I am compelled to, from a close study of epilepsy, that its most hopeful stage is its earliest one, and knowing that mental and moral effects are the best remedial agents we have, I cannot but indorse most heartily that especial provision for them which shall surround them with occupation, amusement, constant oversight by and contact with those who understand them, and which shall blot out, as far as possible, the terrible gulf which, without this help, must continue to widen between them and their more fortunate brothers.

But, in the interests of economy and mutual well-being, I must advocate the colony plan, not for the epileptics alone, but for the epileptic and all grades of the feeble-minded together. The epileptic, in many instances, needs constant care,— not the care a trained nurse would give, but the care a bright imbecile would give gladly and constantly, under proper supervision. It is impossible, without a superabundant appropriation, to provide paid attendants for each case needing a firm hand to help him over a threshold or to keep him

from falling over the slight obstructions which prove pitfalls to the unsteady gate of an epileptic.

But many an imbecile boy or girl will perform this service for his fellow with a willingness and gentleness which money cannot buy. When you have made an imbecile helpful, you have unmade a pauper; and I believe that the best interests of the two classes are met when you help them to divide their misfortunes, and share their benefits. The trend, then, which I should be glad to give the discussion is not whether epileptics shall have especial provision in colonies for epileptics alone, but whether the best interests of epileptics, imbeciles, and tax-payers shall not be met when all grades of the feeble-minded are included in the colony plan.

Adjourned at 1.20 P.M.

SEVENTH SESSION.

Saturday night, May 26.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. Prayer was offered by Rev. Dr. Steele.

The subject for the evening was "Sociology in Colleges," and was opened by the chairman of the committee having the subject in charge, Mr. Daniel Fulcomer, of the University of Chicago (page 67).

Miss Julia C. Lathrop was invited to speak of Hull House as a sociological laboratory.

Miss LATHROP.— When Dr. Fulcomer asked me yesterday if I would speak to-night on "Hull House as a Laboratory of Sociological Investigation," I was flattered by the impressiveness of the title; but I did not realize the responsibility it would entail. I have felt increasingly embarrassed as I have listened to his paper, which develops with such exactness the definition of sociology,— a science of which I know too little; and now, since it is late to withdraw, I see nothing except to state what I can about Hull House in the time allotted to me, and then to leave it to you to determine if it may be called a laboratory of sociological investigation.

Hull House is a social settlement. I need not say that thus far the form of a settlement has been that a number of young men or women, gathered chiefly from the universities and colleges, have taken up residence together in some undesirable quarter of a great city, and have undertaken to make it a better place to live in by the use of whatever powers or resources they might possess, and reciprocally to gain from it all the wisdom they could. To live among laboring

people, getting their point of view; to serve their needs, whether it be for better lighted streets or higher cultivation; to study and to interpret present economic conditions by the light of sound historical research; and just now, above all, to try to bring to bear the influence of a "sweet reasonableness" upon the growing strength of labor organizations, — these may be taken as the aims of the settlement of which I speak, difficult, but worth striving for.

The settlement that we call Hull House was started five years ago, in Chicago, by Miss Addams and Miss Starr, who began living in a house which was one of the fine residences of the West Side before the blight of factories and railroad yards and tenements had destroyed forever the social prestige of its vicinity. At the time they took the house it was used partly as a tenement and partly as a cabinet-shop. They hired and restored it, and made of it a cheerful and delightful home, a place to which one who was invited went with pleasure, because it was an artistic and beautiful house, and offered the graciousness of a refined hospitality. It is situated on the corner of South Halstead and Polk Streets, a mile west of State Street and a mile south of the court house, in the middle of the Nineteenth ward. The neighborhood is markedly cosmopolitan, even in Chicago. Between us and the river on Polk and Ewing and a few other streets lives most of the Italian population of the city. South, on an area suggested to any Chicagoan by the names of Liberty and Maxwell Streets, are the Russian Jews. Both these people are ill-adjusted to American city life, and in periods of business depression many of them must receive charity. Among us are many Irish and Germans, as well as Teutons of the second generation who often have property, and Celts of the second generation who carry on our politics. Beyond our immediate neighborhood, to the south-west, are the Bohemians, and on the north-west a small French colony. Here and there are scattered Americans.

With neighbors varying in fortune from the estate of habitual paupers to that of self-respecting, industrious, intelligent working people, sometimes with independent means, the House must be many-sided if it is to answer to their diverse needs. Every activity of the House has sprung out of some neighborhood need; and it has thus been perhaps a necessity, at any rate a natural development, that it should undertake many things, as it realized the untoward conditions about it, rather than that it should do a few things with the thoroughness which a laboratory implies. Easily enough a free kindergarten was its first work. A day nursery has grown out of an increasing acquaintance with a neighborhood where the wilful or enforced idleness of husbands, or their ephemeral character, makes it necessary for many women with families to work for hire. The day nursery has now rather overgrown the kindergarten, and is fast absorbing it as an adjunct in the care of the children daily brought to the nursery.

Neither nature nor landlords provide any play-ground save the

street and the back alley for tenement-house children, unless we count on an occasional vacant lot where the dump-cart has quite ousted nature. It was a double advantage to the neighborhood when the owner of a piece of land covered with the poorest sort of wooden tenements gave its use for the purpose of a play-ground. The tenements were removed, this in itself being a consummation devoutly to be wished, and the lot converted into a clean, sand-covered space, with swings and turning-poles and see-saws.

There are various clubs for children and for young people, as well as the Hull House Men's Club, which pays rent for its club-room, and the Hull House Women's Club, both very dignified and substantial organizations. All these clubs have a more or less serious purpose of culture; but all reach it, I suspect, chiefly through social intercourse and enjoyment. It is needless to say how hateful is the social life of a tenement district in a great city, or rather how much to be deplored is the lack of such life. Yet it is hardly possible for one who has not lived in such a neighborhood to realize its barrenness of innocent pleasure. I am inclined to think that such power of usefulness as the House enjoys comes primarily very largely from the fact that it offers at various times and in various forms, to the thousand or so people who visit it weekly, social opportunities not otherwise obtainable. There are picnics and outings and Sunday afternoon concerts and lectures and receptions and parties. Dancing to a healthful young person is as natural as frisking is to a kitten; and favored young people find the love of motion and music recognized, and this amusement provided for them with conventional and respectable surroundings. But in a tenement district all this is changed. The homes are so small that a dance is inevitably held in a public hall, and becomes a more or less indiscriminate entertainment. Thus it is a great privilege to have the beautiful new Hull House gymnasium to dance in, and to have as much observance of decorum as any one could demand. Even the Social Science Club, which is a little coterie of men with a sprinkling of women meeting every Tuesday evening, shows the influence of a social atmosphere. The club is usually addressed by a speaker who is an authority on some political, social, or economic subject; and an hour of free discussion follows. I do not believe there is any vagary of social theorizing which has not been heard there; nor do I believe, to tell the truth, that the philosophy of any one has been changed,— unless it may be that some of us who pass for conservative have been enlarged, — but I am perfectly sure that a strong bond of human sympathy has been created, that the neutral ground and the "friendly roof" have had a real influence toward giving a common understanding and tolerance.

The House makes an earnest effort to strengthen the municipal life of its neighborhood. Any such district has the same suffrage power, voter for voter, as the best in the city. It has the same right

to demand that it shall be well drained, paved, and lighted, that its streets shall be well cleaned and its garbage duly removed, and that it shall have adequate school-houses, and that it shall enjoy the advantages of public reading-rooms and bath-houses, and of whatever benefits municipal association confers. But it is a fact that such a district is never fairly treated, simply because the people who live there have no conception of their rights and duties as citizens. Too many of them simply regard their votes as one of their transferable mortal possessions. They are in the attitude of the street-car conductor — not in Chicago — who said to a passenger: "What do you think, sir, that votes are going at this fall? I have been offered two dollars and a half for mine, but I am holding it for four." The House has endeavored not only to obtain needed improvements, but to stimulate by every proper means a persistent, intelligent local demand. One of the first things it obtained was a public reading-room. The Chicago Public Library has a system of branch reading-rooms. It had never placed one in our part of the town; nor would it have done so, had it not been that in a new building provided by a friend of the House for an art exhibit room and studio there was a fine ground-floor room which the House offered to the city rent free. Such a reading-room, with the dignity of the city ownership behind it, was much more desirable than one provided by private means as a charity. Of course, the saloon offers the only cheerful, well-furnished place of resort in such a neighborhood. The Hull House coffee-room and the gymnasium and the club-room are an effort to furnish the opportunities for social enjoyment which are only found at the saloon otherwise. In our sales-kitchen, which uses the methods of the New England kitchen in Boston, foods are prepared for home consumption and the coffee-room is supplied. Much difficulty is found by doctors and the visiting nurses in obtaining wholesome nourishment for the sick, and the kitchen is of great use in furnishing proper food in such cases.

The cheap boarding-house of a tenement district is unattractive enough for men, whose freedom renders them somewhat independent of it, and who can supplement its pleasures by resorting to the saloon; but for young women its crowded, tawdry discomfort is most trying. The Jane Club, a boarding club of working-girls, was suggested to solve this problem. It is an independent organization with its own officers, though fostered by Hull House. It pays its current expenses upon a weekly charge of $3; and for this sum its members have clean surroundings, good food, and pretty sitting-rooms in which to receive their friends. The girls perform the duties of steward in turn as they are elected. They have no matron, no *chaperone*, no board of lady managers; but they have a dignity and a hearty *esprit de corps* which disprove all sweeping assertions about the inability of women to co-operate.

Constant dealing with abject poverty and sickness is always neces-

sary in our neighborhood, and friends sometimes give us funds to use for relief; but it is our purpose to act as a bureau of information for our neighbors, and not as direct dispensers of charity. There are hospitals and relief societies and asylums enough; and the best service we can perform is to co-operate with them, and, if possible, increase their usefulness.

For four winters the House has had evening classes, which have been taught in part by residents, but chiefly by young men and women from other parts of Chicago. In pursuance of its policy to do nothing which any other agency was performing, it has not taught branches which the public night schools teach. Its programmes show classes in history, literature, science, languages, art, and music; and among its teachers are numbered some of the most brilliant people in town, who find great pleasure in this volunteer service, partly from its novelty, but more from the responsiveness and eagerness of the students.

I have said that the House is profoundly interested in the labor movement. No one can live among working people, and fail to see the increasing power of organization among them. Several unions of women have been organized at the house, and in several cases the House has been able to exert a conciliatory influence in strikes. The trades-union must be reckoned with as a fact, and can never be scolded or fought out of existence. It is not necessary to deny the crudeness and selfishness of some of its manifestations. It is necessary to remember that these qualities are rather universal. The trades-union needs — what we all need — a high ardor for humanity, a living belief in the solidarity of human interests. I do not know what modifications of our present economic and industrial life are to grow out of the labor movement; but of this I feel certain: that, if the movement fails to develop reasonably, it is the fault not more of those who direct it than of those who stand aloof from it.

The House has been always much interested in the public schools in that part of the city. They are overcrowded, and in many ways inadequate for the needs of children, hundreds of whom never hear English at home. The educative influence of art has always been held by the House to be especially needed in such quarters as this; and one of the residents has made collections of choice photographs and hung them in the school-rooms, and lectured upon art to the public school-teachers of different parts of the city, frequently. There has been a most cordial spirit of co-operation between the public-school teachers and the House. It was through the investigation and urgency of a resident that a new school-house was last year erected near us, with a kindergarten as a recognized department. We live in the midst of what is known as the "sweat-shop district"; and it was through an effort of a resident that the legislature of Illinois made an investigation, resulting in the present "sweat-shop law."

As a piece of sociological investigation, I think perhaps the most

satisfactory thing in this connection would be to refer to the maps made in 1892. At that time the government conducted a so-called "slum investigation" in certain large cities, among them Chicago. Hull House borders upon the district chosen for investigation, and the person appointed to carry on the work was a resident of the House. As the schedules were brought in, the facts as to wages and to nationality were taken off, and later indicated in color and symbol upon surveyors' maps of the district, thus giving a graphic presentation of a house to house canvass. They afford a vivid idea of the wage penalty required of foreigners for being unskilled, ignorant, and unassimilated; and they indicate with unflattering clearness the financial prosperity of the native-born population, who are pursuing unholy avocations on the eastern side of the district examined. Then, too, a resident of the House who came to us out of the East, bringing with her excellent training in household economics and the chemistry of food, spent several months in collecting dietaries, which have since been published. The House is constantly adding to its stores of recorded data upon all the matters with which it has to do, and I think it is not too much to say that it furnishes from the information it has gathered a considerable fund of sociological material.

It should always be reckoned into the account that its acquaintance gives it the power to obtain information upon any specific matter, when it is needed, which a stranger could hardly gain.

A DELEGATE.— Tell us about the election in which Hull House was interested.

Miss LATHROP.— That is rather humiliating, because we did not elect any one last year. The Hull House Men's Club of more than one hundred and fifty members embraces many of the most influential citizens in the Nineteenth Ward. Some of them have had large experience in the politics of the ward. One of the candidates for alderman a year ago was a member of this club, and the club worked very hard to secure his election. It is at least doubtful if he could have been elected without their effort. He was elected as a reform alderman; and, what is much more to the point, he is still regarded as such. The club and all of us as fellow-citizens feel a righteous pride in him. We would have been glad at the last election to have seen an equally good man elected, but the politics of the ward were so organized that the House could do nothing.

A DELEGATE.— Have you any system of visitation of families for philanthropic or religious purposes?

Miss LATHROP.— That is rather a difficult question to answer. Any one who has lived long at the House has a large circle of acquaintances in that part of the town. Few of us have much time for social calling; but, on the other hand, I have never made a visit in that part of the town without as adequate a reason as would be demanded if my hostess lived on Calumet Avenue. I don't say the same reason, but I say one which would equally satisfy the hostess. We

have no "system" of visitation. I do not think it would be possible to carry on a formal system and maintain the social relation which we endeavor to preserve. Nobody likes the census-taker, in what ever guise he comes. Of course, we do make a friendly investigatory call the condition of outdoor relief. So far as the religious purpose of the House is concerned, it does not undertake, and I think very few settlements do, to give religious instruction. We offer a common hospitality to all who come to the House for any of the purposes for which it is opened. It would be impossible to harmonize in clubs of men or women or in societies of boys and girls, as we constantly do, various religious faiths and nationalities, if we undertook any sort of religious propaganda. I am not in the least criticising that work. I am only saying that, undertaking to do the one, it would be impossible for us to do the other.

A DELEGATE.— How is Hull House supported?

Miss LATHROP.— The land upon which stands Hull House proper, as well as the library and the building containing the kitchen, coffee-house, and gymnasium, is under a free lease from the owner, so that we are not only relieved of paying rent, but are relieved of responsibility of ownership. As a rule, the residents are unsalaried; and thus the "wages of superintendence" are practically eliminated. The House has many friends who constantly contribute toward carrying on the nursery and kindergarten and gymnasium and outdoor relief work, and all the various avenues for spending money which in such a place it is so easy to discover. Friends have erected the building in which are the coffee-house, kitchen, gymnasium, and club-room. Another friend erected the building containing the library and art gallery. In fact, it is the liberality of Chicago people interested in the experiment which many of them consider the House to be which alone renders possible its extended activity. Perhaps I have not made it clear that the House simply has the use of these buildings and grounds. Fortunately for itself, I think it has thus far owned no property. Property makes people conservative and prudent; and, though some of our friends think we ought to have a little on that account, yet, as a matter of fact, I think a large estate would, up to the present time, have necessitated a rigidity in method which would have lessened the usefulness of the House.

The Committee on Training Schools for Nurses reported through the chairman, Miss Anna C. Maxwell, of New York City. Miss Maxwell read a paper written by Miss Edith S. Brent on "District Nursing" (page 97).

Dr. E. N. Brush was asked to speak.

Dr. BRUSH.— There is nothing which a mere physician can say about nursing which a nurse cannot say. Indeed, I think, when I re-

flect upon what we have already heard from these two ladies, that the programme committee have followed the plan of giving us the best wine at the last part of the feast. I do not believe that any of you who have not been sick and cared for by "Sairey Gamp," and then been sick and taken care of by a trained nurse, or who have had hospital experience under both the old method and the new, can appreciate what trained nursing means, or can appreciate how thoroughly the trained nurse has revolutionized the care of our sick, injured, and insane people. The change is felt in a small measure, and it is going to be felt in large measure, in the hospitals for the insane. This is a subject in which I am very much interested; and I believe, if we are to do anything for our insane, we are to do it by calling to our aid such women as Miss Maxwell and others. The community must be educated up in this matter.

Mr. WINES expressed great satisfaction at the addresses he had heard.

Dr. WALK.— In Philadelphia we have a college settlement, or rather two, one of ladies and one of gentlemen. They are both placed in that quarter of the city in which the most depressed population lives, people who to a great extent subsist on public relief of one kind or another. Our university settlement is about to change from the house it occupies, and the question is whether they shall remove into some other locality. Will a university settlement do better work if placed in a neighborhood of people who have for a long time lived largely upon charity, or mendicancy, who have been experimented on in various ways by charitable and benevolent agencies, or will it do better in a locality of working people,— very poor, but working people?

Miss LATHROP.— A settlement among genuine working people would have an opportunity to do a higher sort of educational work than one placed among people who were from any cause pauperized. On the other hand, I can imagine no more satisfactory achievement than to pull families up out of pauperism. The trend of activity in any settlement must depend largely upon the work for which its residents are adapted. We are pretty certain to have the poor with us in some proportion in any vicinity where a settlement would be located, and I think the possibility of a large acquaintance with working people is to be sought in choosing a location. I should dread an overwhelmingly pauper district. I am sorry I cannot give an accurate answer to Dr. Walk's question.

The report of the Committee on Organization was presented by Mr. Mills, as follows: —

Officers.— President, Robert Treat Paine, Boston, Mass.; Secretaries: first, A. O. Wright, Madison, Wis.; second, C. E. Faulkner, Atchison, Kan.; third, John H. Gabriel, Denver, Col.; fourth,

Ernest B. Bicknell, Indianapolis, Ind.; fifth, David I. Green, Hartford, Conn.; Treasurer, John M. Glenn, Baltimore, Md.; Official Reporter and Editor, Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, 141 Franklin Street, Boston, Mass.; Vice-Presidents: first, Dr. Edward Hitchcock, Amherst, Mass.; second, Hon. Seth Low, New York, N.Y.; third, Professor C. R. Henderson, Chicago, Ill.; fourth, Judge R. R. Caldwell, Nashville, Tenn.; fifth, Dr. Walter Lindley, Whittier, Cal.; sixth, Dr. B. A. Wheeler, Denver, Col.; Executive Committee, Robert Treat Paine, Boston, Mass.; A. O. Wright, Madison, Wis.; Professor Francis Wayland, New Haven, Conn.; Alexander Johnson, Fort Wayne, Ind.; John M. Glenn, Baltimore, Md.; J. S. Appel, Denver, Col.; James H. Lewis, Springfield, Mass.; General R. Brinkerhoff, Mansfield, Ohio.

Committee on Charity Organization.— Jeffrey R. Brackett, Baltimore, Md., chairman; S. O. Preston, New Haven, Conn.; Miss Frances Smith, Boston, Mass.; Charles D. Kellogg, New York, N.Y.; Ansley Wilcox, Buffalo, N.Y.; A. O. Crozier, Grand Rapids, Mich.; P. W. Ayres, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Committee on Administration of Public and Private Relief.— C. G. Trusdell, D.D., Chicago, Ill., chairman; Rev. Thomas M. Finney, St. Louis, Mo.; William Blake, 67 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y.; Dr. James W. Walk, 1705 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa.; Mrs. S. A. Champion, Nashville, Tenn.

Committee on Child-saving Work.— Charles W. Birtwell, Boston, Mass., chairman; A. N. Woodruff, Coldwater, Mich.; William P. Letchworth, Buffalo, N.Y.; L. P. Alden, Terre Haute, Ind.; Francis Wayland, New Haven, Conn.; H. W. Lewis, Washington, D.C.; Miss E. C. Putnam, Boston, Mass.; Rev. E. P. Savage, St. Paul, Minn.; Rev. Anna Garlin Spencer, Providence, R.I.; Homer Folks, New York, N.Y.; Michael Heymann, New Orleans, La.; Mrs. Glen Wood, Chicago, Ill.; Talcott Williams, Philadelphia, Pa.; Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, San Francisco, Cal.; M. V. Crouse, Cincinnati, Ohio; G. A. Merrill, Owatonna, Minn.; Charles L. Brace, New York, N.Y.; J. J. Kelso, Toronto, Ont.

Committee on Juvenile Reformatories.— F. H. Nibecker, Superintendent, House of Refuge, Glen Mills, Pa.; J. H. Nutting, Chaplain State Institutions, Howard, R.I.; Mrs. W. G. Fairbanks, Assistant Superintendent, Industrial School for Girls, Middletown, Conn.; P. Caldwell, Superintendent, Industrial School of Reform, Louisville,

Ky.; Walter Lindley, Superintendent, Whittier State School, Whittier, Cal.; Mrs. L. L. Brackett, Superintendent, Girls' Industrial School, Lancaster, Mass.

Committee on the Insane.— Dr. J. W. Babcock, Columbia, S.C.; Dr. H. P. Stearns, Hartford, Conn.; Dr. Edward Cowles, Boston, Mass.; F. B. Sanborn, Concord, Mass.; W. P. Letchworth, Buffalo, N.Y.; Dr. A. B. Richardson, Columbus, Ohio; Dr. Richard Dewey, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. C. W. Page, Danvers, Mass.; Dr. E. N. Brush, Towson, Md.

Committee on State Boards of Charities.— Frederick H. Wines, Springfield, Ill.; Clarence Snyder, Racine, Wis.; John R. Elder, Indianapolis, Ind.; H. M. Boies, Scranton, Pa.; George B. Waterhouse, Centreville, R.I.; H. C. Whittlesey, Middletown, Conn.; Mrs. Anne B. Richardson, Lowell, Mass.; M. A. Householder, Columbus, Kan.; Dr. Stephen Smith, New York, N.Y.

Committee on the Feeble-minded.— Dr. George H. Knight, Lakeville, Conn.; Dr. Walter Fernald, Waltham, Mass.; Dr. J. C. Carson, Syracuse, N.Y.; Dr. William B. Fish, Chicago, Ill.; Professor J. J. McCook, Hartford, Conn.; William P. Letchworth, Buffalo, N.Y.; H. H. Hart, St. Paul, Minn.; Frederick Patterson, New Jersey; Mrs. M. C. Goodlet, Nashville, Tenn.

Committee on Immigration and Interstate Migration.— Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, Albany, N.Y., chairman; Charles F. Donnelly, Boston, Mass.; Levi L. Barbour, Detroit, Mich.; Hastings H. Hart, St. Paul, Minn.; Rev. C. W. Wendte, Oakland, Cal.

Committee on Sociology in Institutions of Learning.— Professor A. G. Warner, Palo Alto, Cal., chairman. The rest to be appointed by the Executive Committee.

Committee on Training Schools for Nurses.— Referred to the Executive Committee.

Committee on Homes for Soldiers and Sailors.— Referred to the Executive Committee.

Committee on Reports from States.— The Corresponding Secretary, chairman. Referred to the Executive Committee.

State Corresponding Secretaries.— Alabama, Miss Julia S. Tutweiler, Livingston; Alaska, Rev. Sheldon Jackson, Washington, D.C.; Arizona, George W. Cheney, Tombstone; California, Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, San Francisco; Colorado, John H. Gabriel, Denver; Connecticut, Prof. John J. McCook, Hartford; Delaware, Mrs. A. D.

Warner, Wilmington; District of Columbia, Dr. John W. Givens, Blackfoot; Illinois, Mrs. Glen Wood, Chicago; Indiana, E. P. Bicknell, Indianapolis; Indian Territory, R. W. Hill, D.D., Muskogee; Iowa, Mrs. F. A. Millard, Burlington; Kansas, M. A. Householder, Columbus; Kentucky, Julius Barkhouse, Louisville; Louisiana, Michael Heymann, New Orleans; Maine, Mrs. L. M. N. Stevens, Portland; Maryland, Dr. C. C. Shippen, Baltimore; Massachusetts, Colonel Henry Stone, Boston; Michigan, Dr. James A. Post, Detroit; Minnesota, C. P. Maginnis, Duluth; Mississippi, Isadore Strauss, Jackson; Missouri, Miss Mary E. Perry, 18 Vandeventer Place, St. Louis; Montana, Mrs. Laura E. Harvey, Helena; Nebraska, Rev. A. W. Clark, 1307 Douglas Street, Omaha; Nevada, Rev. John W. Hyslop, Carson; New Hampshire, Miss C. R. Wendell, Dover; New Jersey, David Warman, Trenton; New Mexico, Rev. George G. Smith, Santa Fé; New York, Homer Folks, New York; North Carolina, Rev. W. C. Wilson, Mocksville; North Dakota, Mrs. James Bartholomew, Bismarck; Ohio, Joseph Byers, Columbus; Oregon, Thomas M. Strong, Portland; Pennsylvania, Cadwalader Biddle, Philadelphia; Rhode Island, Rev. James H. Nutting, Howard; South Dakota, Z. Richey, Sioux Falls; Tennessee, Rev. I. Lewinthall, Nashville; Texas, Benjamin E. McCulloch, 2004 White's Avenue, Austin; Utah, Mrs. Cornelia G. Paddock, Salt Lake City; Vermont, Mrs. Julia C. R. Dorr, Rutland; Virginia, R. O. Gilliam, Petersburg; Washington, Rev. John R. Thompson, Vancouver; West Virginia, Rev. S. H. Day, Morgantown; Wisconsin, Gustav Frellson, 416 Milwaukee Street, Milwaukee; Wyoming, S. T. Farwell, Cheyenne; Ontario, Dr. A. M. Rosebrugh, 137 Church Street, Toronto; Manitoba and West Canada, Hon. John W. Sifton, Winnipeg.

The report was unanimously adopted, and the officers and members of committees declared elected.

The Executive Committee reported the following resolution, which was adopted:—

Resolved, That the several State Conferences of Charities, convention of superintendents of poor, and similar bodies be invited to send representatives to the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and that the official editor of the National Conference be instructed to print a list of the State Conferences with the names of the presidents and the secretaries; also a list of the papers presented at each State Conference.

Mr. Hart invited as many delegates as possible to attend the National Prison Association, which would convene in St. Paul in June.

It was voted that Professor Henderson be requested to report the results of his investigations at the next Conference, as they were not in a state to print with his paper on outdoor relief.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

EIGHTH SESSION.

Sunday morning, May 27.

The usual Conference sermon was preached before the assembled body in the Vendome Theatre by Rev. Collins Denny, of Vanderbilt University (page 132).

NINTH SESSION.

Sunday night, May 27.

The evening session was held in the Vendome Theatre, and was under the care of the section on child-saving work. President Storrs called the meeting to order; and the chairman of that committee, Mr. Homer Folks, presided during the evening. After music, prayer was offered by Dr. J. B. Lindsley. Mr. Folks then read a report on "The Removal of Children from Almshouses" (page 119).

Hon. William P. Letchworth, of New York, followed with a brief paper (page 132).

Rev. F. H. Wines gave a short address on "Lessons of the Eleventh Census concerning Children in Almshouses."

Mr. WINES.— My experience as a clergyman and as a statistician is that the most unpopular texts for sermons are those taken from Numbers, and therefore I shall not detain you long.

I will say only one word with regard to the statistics of almshouses in the South, in which this audience is naturally most deeply interested. According to the census of 1890 there are in the almshouses of the so-called South (not including Missouri) 13,149 pauper inmates. Of these, 8,692 are white, and 4,457 are colored. In other words, two-thirds of the almshouse paupers in Southern States are white, and one-third is colored. In the State of Tennessee, which has 79 almshouses in all, there are in round numbers 1,500 paupers, of whom 1,000 are white, and 500 are colored. 500 of these are in the

two counties of Davidson and Shelby, leaving 1,000 in the country almshouses, or an average of 12 paupers to each almshouse.

The number of children in all the almshouses of the South is nothing like what it was in the State of New York. According to the last census, the total number of Southern almshouse children under sixteen years of age was 1,658. The total number in Tennessee was 181, so that, after taking out the two large almshouses of Davidson and Shelby Counties, there is not in the rural districts an average of more than one child and a half on a county farm. This question, which is of so much importance in New York and New England, is therefore relatively of far less importance in this section of the country.

And this leads me to say something, which I hope will be of interest and value to citizens of both geographical sections in this audience. Each section has its own peculiar problems. The great difficulty with which we have to contend in the North is the presence of the foreign element. The great difficulty in the South is the presence of the negro element. We have to elevate, humanize, Christianize, "*Americanize*," these elements of the population. I think that no impression has been made upon the visitors to this Southern capital more vivid or lasting than that produced by the spectacle this morning of the general attendance of the people on the services of the sanctuary. "This is America!" said a visitor from the North to me.

Now, I think that you scarcely realize that the number of adult foreigners in the North is larger than the number of adult negroes in the South. But I understand, and I wish that I could make every member of this Conference understand, the extent to which the situation in the South, in respect to charities and correction, is complicated with its connection with the negro question. The negro enters into the social question, into the political question, into the economic question, into the industrial question; and he has a prominent place in the question of relief, and perhaps a disproportionate place in that of correction. It is utterly impossible for us who live in the North, with our local civilization and customs and ideas growing out of local conditions, to bring our institutions and methods down here, and make them fit your people. They will not do it.

In the question of the treatment of convicts, for instance. When we were here six years ago, with the National Prison Association, and I went through your convict camps, I saw clearly that the methods in use in Northern prisons are largely inapplicable to the prison population of the South; and the same is true in regard to benevolent institutions. There is not the same stimulus as in the North, and the presence of the negro makes it difficult to deal with prisoners and paupers in a satisfactory manner.

I am glad that this Conference met here. I think it extremely desirable that national conferences should assemble as often as possi-

ble in the South. I believe they are of more service there than in the North, especially because they conduce to mutual acquaintance and affection. The Civil War would, perhaps, never have occurred, had the two sections known each other. Everything that makes Northern people better acquainted with Southern conditions and Southern relations and Southern sentiment is of advantage to the whole country. We have enjoyed our too brief visit to you immensely; and I cannot let this opportunity pass to express, on behalf of the Conference, our appreciation of the kindness, courtesy and consideration of the people of Nashville. We shall hold you in grateful remembrance all our lives; and, when we meet in New Haven, we hope to see many of our Tennessee friends there.

An address with stereopticon views was then given by Mr. Homer Folks, showing various almshouses of Pennsylvania from which children had been taken, and the quiet country homes to which they had been removed.

It was moved, and after some discussion voted, that the Conference should adjourn for a final session in Memphis at the close of the Monday morning session.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

TENTH SESSION.

Monday morning, May 28.

The Conference was called to order at 10 A.M. by the President. Prayer was offered by Bishop O. P. Fitzgerald.

The Report of the Committee on Reports from States was continued.

The Report of the Committee on Prisons and Reformatories was made. A paper on "An Ideal Home for Discharged Prisoners" was read by Mrs. Agnes D'Arcambal, of Detroit, Mich.

AN IDEAL HOME FOR DISCHARGED PRISONERS.

BY MRS. AGNES D'ARCAMBAL OF DETROIT.

An ideal home for discharged prisoners cannot be united with any other institution; and yet it must be a home, in every sense of the word, surrounded by Christian influences.

For such a home I advise the renting of a good-sized and convenient house, with barn and some ground, not in the heart of the city, but a little way out, accessible by street-cars. There should be a good light shop or work-room. The home must be furnished as plainly as possible,— single beds always, strong sheets, gray blankets, light mattress or tick filled with straw or corn-husks, pillows made from excelsior or moss; and there should be proper bathing conveniences. Let the sitting-room be light and cheery; for this is the family room, where the men spend their evenings. Hang pictures on the walls, and a looking-glass likewise. I have a belief in the old saying, If we could see ourselves as others see us, etc., it would from many a blunder free us. The glass helps, undoubtedly, to strengthen and pull up some of the unfortunates that come out of prison. The first reflection makes him start and stare, likewise his reflection after he has received some of the light and health of his surroundings into his heart, with the opportunity to bathe and have clean clothes. All this makes a complete change. On this second reflection he is again surprised and often inspired with the idea that the old Adam can be washed away, and a right and clean spirit renewed within him. Put a large table in the centre of this room where men can read and write. Around this table the family gather for evening service and Bible-reading. Have this room well lighted in the evening. Light invites good thoughts, creates strength, and develops growth and health. Let there be a book-case with good books by the best authors, no namby-pamby novels, no musty old sermons. The novels the men might read, but the old sermons would cause many a man to turn from the book-case. If possible, secure some kind of musical instrument. Men like the organ best. We have seldom been without some one in the family who can play the accompaniment for the song service. These things help to keep the family more in harmony, and bring about reformation of character and better thought. It is very encouraging to workers who stand at the head of the home to see the effort on the part of many of the younger class of discharged prisoners to "spruce up," be clean-shaved, with collar and tie neatly adjusted, before coming down to the "evening at home."

I often wonder if men in comfortable circumstances ever think of the released prisoner in this respect, so apt are we to forget that we are all of one great family,— that all are our brothers, even if they are bad fellows and get into prison.

In the sleeping-room there should be some kind of box for the clothing, that all things may be kept in order. The toilet-room should have plenty of soap and water and good towels, a comb, brush, and blacking-brush. The kitchen should be of good size, with sink and shelves. Don't have closets for hiding away dirty kettles and dishes. Have plenty of tinware, and keep it bright and clean. Let the table be covered with white oilcloth. It is more homelike than bare tables, although these could be kept scoured.

A good-sized store-room for provisions and vegetables is necessary; another store-room for the clothing that is given for the men. These two rooms must be kept under lock and key.

If smoking is allowed (I wish it were not), there should be a place set aside for it.

This is a brief description of the ideal home for discharged prisoners. Let me add, Have flowers and plants. These take little time to care for, and are a source of pleasure to many of the men. Our Home in Detroit has been established seven years, and has never been without plants and flowers for our Sunday and evening service.

Now, as to the care of the discharged prisoner. The discharged prisoner enters the office, asking admittance into the Home. He tells his name, his prison number, where he was in prison, his crime and sentence. These facts are recorded in a book which is always kept in the safe. No one has access to it except the superintendent and members of the Board. He is now a member of the family, and is expected to obey the rules, that are simple, but imperative. He is given an opportunity to bathe, and, if necessary, an entire outfit is given him. He then goes into the shop where he is expected to work, either at broom-making, chair-caning, carpenter work, or about the house or yard; but work he must, if it is only to wash and rewash windows. *He must not be idle.*

Breakfast is at 6.30. Every man must come into the dining-room in a decent, respectable manner, face and hands clean, hair combed, and coats on. The civilities of home life are indispensable in the family. Work hours are from 7.30 till 11.30, with half an hour to clean up and be ready for dinner, and a half-hour for smoking, if smoking is allowed. Work again from 1 till 5. Supper is at 5.30. This gives time for reading and study. Men and boys are not apt to improve their opportunities unless there is a leading and enterprising spirit; and then, like other men, they follow. Sometimes there is an effort, and successful often, in forming a literary society. It is surprising to see the talent that some of these men possess, but which has been educated in the wrong direction.

One or more evenings of each week should be devoted to religious exercises, Bible reading, song service, and lectures. Let the men understand that they are wanted to take part in these exercises. Thus they are led into a better and higher life, and grow, as do plants and shrubs that receive our kindly attention.

Sunday service in the Home must be at a regular hour, and no member of the family can be excused unless sick. Games of all kinds (except cards) should be allowed. We have checkers, dominos, halma, maps, puzzles, and other games that keep the men interested in our home life. No man is allowed to be out after ten at night unless by special permit; and he then must report, that the superintendent may know and protect him if any question should arise.

All work is done by the men. We teach cooking as well as other trades, and prepare the men to go out as cooks both for meat and for pastry. We have sent out many good cooks, who have given satisfaction and been able to earn a good living.

Let the Home own a carpenter's tool chest with good tools, whitewash brushes, paint brushes, and paper-hanger's shears, plank, and pail. When men are called for to do a day's work, you have the tools as well as the men. When a situation is obtained, either through the Home or the efforts of the man himself, he should be decently clothed, and have a change. Let the man feel that he is a man, decently clothed, and have some confidence in himself. You have then paved the way for reformation of mind and body. The change may be of slow growth, but there is much to look forward to.

I have given a few of the most important ways to care for the discharged prisoner. Every day brings something new. There are plenty of disappointments intermingled with grand success. Start one man in the right road, and you may see him steadily fight his way up, and finally establish himself in some good, honest employment, earn a home of his own, and marry a good wife. While these things are not the rule, they are grand exceptions, and are worth working for. But, to bring about desired results, the Home must have at its head a good, true, honest-hearted man, who loves his fellow-men, and believes not only in himself, but that all men can be helped and saved from a life of crime; that there is such a thing as complete reformation in the lives of both men and women. A married man is best, and always preferable to a single man, if the wife is a helpful one, and enters into the work with soul and heart. Woman with her mother love can teach men the pleasure there is in right living.

We have a great many workers in our prisons who are trying to rescue these poor souls by little acts of kindness, but who are hampered in their endeavors by the need of a place to send these men when released.

You may preach and pray to the prisoners on Sunday; but, if you cannot reach out a helping hand to them when they come out of prison, they will soon be discouraged, and go back into the same road of crime.

It is not only a blessed privilege, but the duty of every State to provide some such place.

I believe a loving God never gave man or woman an unnatural passion; but these have been handed down from generation to generation. God's laws are perfect, and should control every one. I believe the vice of "weakness" is not so great in the sight of the all-wise Father as the vice of hardness and hate.

The great Teacher stood up in all the stainlessness of his own nature, and said, "Let him who is without sin cast the first stone." So let us, as friends and reformers, beware lest we encourage the vice of hardness and harshness in our hearts.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— America is behind in her methods of caring for discharged prisoners. We ought to have everywhere some such work as Mrs. D'Arcambal has accomplished. This post-penitentiary treatment of prisoners is more important in the way of reformation than anything we can do inside the prison. Without it what we do inside will largely fail. There are few prisoners' aid societies in this country. There is one in Philadelphia, and an excellent one in Baltimore. The one in New York has done good work. There is one in Hartford, and one in Boston. I do not know of any work that is better done than that of Mrs. D'Arcambal.

Mrs. M. E. T. M. WHELESS, of Tennessee, spoke of her own work in this regard, which she had carried on for years. It came about from her teaching and praying with the prisoners at the penitentiary on Sundays. It was suggested to her by a lady that prayers and work were of no use, because, when they got out of prison, no one would receive them. It had resulted in her caring for many at her own home, and her experiences showed the good results of a little attention to the men just out of prison. Mrs. Wheless spoke of a number who had gone out from her home encouraged and helped, and who had really reformed and were filling positions. The work had outgrown her single capacity; and she had interested other ladies, secured a house, and next week will open a home where they may care for these men just out of prison. It had been objected that this would cause ex-convicts to congregate here. This was not true; for the men it was desired to benefit were those in whom the pride of manhood could be restored, who were willing and anxious to go somewhere and go to work, if anybody would let them. One man she had so helped had afterwards come back as a member of the Tennessee legislature.

Bishop FITZGERALD.— This is the volunteer State. Her sons volunteered for war, and planted the banner of their country on the heights of Monterey. The Tennessee spirit would plant the star-spangled banner on anything. Yesterday we had a spirit of philanthropic sympathy in that meeting where the ladies spoke for the children. Extremes meet. To-day we have the work of assisting those who have been convicts to redeem themselves and be men again. We are not to let go of a human soul as long as God lets that soul live on earth. We are not going to have any discharged prisoners. They may be discharged from the prison, but we will never discharge them from our sympathy and our love. We will not discharge them from our confidence, our help, or from hope. A soul without hope is a lost soul. While God lets us live, we will hold open the door of hope to every lowest child of man, to every brother and sister. Some philanthropists, some sagacious statesmen, say that we must not have a namby-pamby system of philanthropy. We must not; but God save any one from the delusion that you are going to put too much love into the manner of treating any human being!

That is not the danger. The danger is that we take the heart out of a man. Of course there are some failures, yet there are failures outside of the prison walls that ought to be in it. There are failures of those who have lost heart and hope. But one soul redeemed unto himself is enough to pay a Christian woman for the labor of a life-time. We are going to stand by Mrs. Wheless: we are going to volunteer. All movements to help humanity and to carry the world forward, come as the result of some good man or woman who sets out in the path of duty. When they shall all succeed, there will be music rolling all over this land, and the tune will be hope.

I look around on the walls of this room, and I see the names of some of the good organizations working in this city. There is the Baptist Orphanage: God bless it, and carry it over the wide river of difficulty until it reaches the harbor of success. There is the Presbyterian Orphanage, fore-ordained to do good things. There is the Working Woman's Exchange that is trying to exchange the dollars of selfish men for the true coin stamped with the mintage mark of God. There is St. Margaret's Hospital: God bless it, and bless St. Mary, and St. Bridget, and St. Julia, and St. Susannah Wesley. And there is the Soldiers' Home. If there is a Union soldier here to-day who says, God bless the children of the boys who wore the gray! we say, God bless the boys who wore the blue!

Mr. A. W. Clark, Omaha, Neb.— Two years ago I opened a corner for ex-convicts in the institution of which I am superintendent. Since that time probably thirty or forty have come in, and been cared for. I found that they hated the State and everybody. This was not because of severe treatment in prison, but because, when they came out, they found they had friends nowhere. They could get no work, and were driven back into a criminal life. Large numbers of ex-convicts have no resource but to go into the lowest saloon, and find perhaps a little sympathy there. The results of my efforts in their behalf have been very satisfactory. I believe that no other line of philanthropic work has been more neglected than efforts on behalf of the ex-convict. I rejoice in the movement in this direction in Tennessee, and hope it will be eminently successful.

Mr. J. P. Thornley, of Nashville, said he believed hundreds would respond with their means and their talent to the movement in behalf of ex-convicts.

Gen. Brinkerhoff.— We do not so much need prisoners' aid societies in our States, because the prison itself arranges for the prisoners who go out. I should like to have Mr. Faulkner describe the system in New York.

Mr. C. E. Faulkner, Kansas.— If I were to select a motto to be inscribed on a banner for this Conference, I should select something like the declaration of a famous student of sociology in Europe: "The wealth of a State does not consist of its public treasure, its beautiful palaces, and its strong walls, but of an abundance of honest, industrious, well-educated citizens."

If that be true, the poverty of a State consists in its dishonest, idle, and ignorant citizens. I desire to call your attention to a practical method of dealing with convicts in their prison life.

Judges have little discretion outside of the latitude of the maximum and minimum sentence in dealing with prisoners. Convicts are not classified as they should be. They are consigned to a common point of detention, and are placed in association with other criminals, the criminal by accident with the criminal by choice. This is a mistake which lies at the bottom of our whole prison system. It is a fatal mistake. Why should we take a young man guilty of his first offence, and compel him to associate with a professor in the crime? For in all the penitentiaries in this country there are men expert in the philosophy of crime who justify a continuance in wrong-doing by logical teaching, and who exercise great influence over those who are committed for a first offence. In some States a wise discretion is vested in the courts to separate first offenders from habitual criminals. Our best example of this policy exists in New York at the Elmira Reformatory. There first offenders between the ages of twenty-five and thirty can be sent. They are committed on an indeterminate sentence. When first received, the men are classified into three grades.

The lowest grade comprises solitary confinement and a diet of bread and water; in the middle grade they go into a congregate dining room where the silent system prevails; and in the first grade they have a better bill of fare, converse at table, and enjoy access to a library.

The incentive all the time is that with good conduct comes increased privilege. The prisoner's record is kept on three lines,— his conduct, his work, and his studies. If he can neither read nor write, he must make his appearance in the kindergarten. He must learn to read and write. The whole policy of the law is absolutely to blot out illiteracy, and to make honest, industrious, well-educated citizens.

The law says to the man: You are here because you have transgressed the law. You must meet the penalty; but you can earn your discharge by fair conduct, and you have it in your power to be restored to all your rights and privileges of citizenship.

A prisoner who attains a maximum grade of merit on the three specified lines of deportment is in condition to receive a parole on the recommendation of the warden. A well-organized employment bureau secures work for discharged prisoners, affording the assurance to each man of the opportunity to earn an honest living.

It was my privilege to witness the parole of a prisoner from the Elmira Reformatory. I was out of sight, but where I could witness and hear what transpired. A man came into the office, dressed in a good suit of clothes; and, after executing the parole contract, the warden said to him: "We have found employment for you. Your wages will be small, but it will be a good start. If you do not agree with

your employer, do not run away or commit another crime, but come back here, and we will assist you to secure another place." The warden then gave the man a small sum of money as a loan to be returned at his convenience, and received his grateful thanks with a hearty promise of a faithful effort to do right. The register showing these temporary loans to discharged prisoners bore creditable testimony to a desire to meet the requirements of an honest life.

The reports of the Elmira Reformatory afford ample evidence of the success of an improved method of dealing with the criminal population under the advantages of classification, an indeterminate sentence, and the parole system. These improvements may be secured by legislative grant, but a vital point in the proper treatment of the worthy discharged prisoner must be gained through such a reform in social methods as will result in opening wide the doors of opportunity and welcome to the passports of redeemed manhood.

The plans of contemplated penitentiaries should be modest in size, and suited to the severer discipline for the incorrigible class,— men who are criminals by choice, and who should be locked in perpetual confinement for the public good. Let the intermediate prisons for first felons be liberal in size and appointments, for here the forces of humanity and Christianity shall reap a continual harvest of good.

Mr. Alexander Johnson moved a reconsideration of the decision not to have a night session, in order that the attractive programme prepared be carried out. The reconsideration carried, and it was decided to hold the night session as originally planned.

Adjourned at 1 P.M.

ELEVENTH SESSION.

Monday night, May 28.

The closing session of the Conference in Nashville was held in the vestry of the McKendree Church. Various addresses were made, of which the following are abstracts :—

DAY NURSERIES.

BY MR. N. S. ROSENAU.

It is extremely easy to paint child life in glowing colors and to harrow your souls with the stories of poor children. But I take it that you want to hear about day nurseries, as you have so recently established one here, and not about the sufferings of neglected children. What I shall say will not be theoretical, for I shall preach nothing that I have not practised.

The charitable worker in any community will find in the course of his peregrinations a large number of homes in which are neglected children. In many instances the neglect is caused by the fact that, in the absence of the natural bread-winner in the family, the mother is obliged to occupy his place; and the children must therefore either be left to the tender mercies of the neighbors or be cared for by some small substitute mother, who is often not more than ten years of age.

The idea of the crèche is twofold: first, it will afford a pleasant, comfortable home for the children during the day; second, it will allow the mother to earn a livelihood for her family without fear for the safety of her offspring.

You will notice that I have said nothing whatever about a household in which there are neglected children where also there is a man, a husband, who is able physically to work and support his family. I do not believe that a day nursery should, under any circumstances, relieve parents from their proper social responsibilities. I believe, furthermore, that a day nursery frequently will remove the taint that unavoidably follows the orphanage care of children; for orphanages almost invariably relieve the mother from all responsibility for her offspring, while the crèche, being a day home, merely takes care of the children only during the day, and only when the mother is at work. The children go home with the mother after the day's work, and she understands that she is in no sense relieved from their care.

In establishing a day nursery, naturally, the first thing you want is a good matron. It is not essential that she should be a trained nurse. If she has training as a nurse, that makes her so much more valuable; but I have seen trained nurses who have made bad failures in the management of a day nursery, because this includes not only the care of children, but the care of a household. Your matron must do all the housekeeping, make all the purchases of supplies, attend to the linen, see to the cooking, or that the cook performs her work properly, that the laundress does her part, and that the house is kept properly clean. She must do a thousand and one things which a mother is called upon to do, and which the training school for nurses does not pretend to teach. What you want, I should say, is a young woman who knows how to keep house, who has had proper family training herself, who has a respectable amount of intelligence, who has a quick intuition, who has a kindly spirit, and who will learn rapidly. Your matron need not possess all these qualities in such a degree as to be a paragon, but she should possess each to a certain extent.

After your matron you want a house; and almost any house that is sanitary and has plenty of sunshine will answer the purpose. In arranging your house, it is well to make provision for sufficient separation of your kitchen and housekeeping department from the crèche

proper, to avoid the noisome cooking and washing smells that frequently permeate institutions and interfere with the purity of the air.

Your day nursery should be prepared to take a baby so soon as it can leave its mother, perhaps at ten days of age, and should also be able to take a child which is nearly of school age. It is not wise to leave the infants and older children together, neither is it wise to let the older children take care of the infants. I have seen, for instance, a little child who could not have been more than six carrying a baby of six months. Of course there was danger to the baby, for it might have been dropped or it might have been scalded; but there was danger also to the spinal column of the older child, as any one knows who has been observantly through the slums of a large city. Many a misshapen back has a woman had to suffer because, as a child, she nursed a baby. The separation of the children should be at about the second year. You may put those under two years into — what we will call for convenience — the nursery, and leave those over two years in the other part of your building.

The crèche should be furnished simply, but tastefully. You can tastefully furnish a building at very small expense. You can spend a great deal of money on a building, and have a very bad result.

Iron cribs and cradles are the best for the children; but I think that most modern mothers will agree that cradles are not only unnecessary, but harmful as well. Iron cribs can be purchased at comparatively small expense, and they last forever. In the Fitch Crèche at Buffalo there has not been a crib or cradle renewed in twelve years. A hair mattress, one or two small feather pillows, snowy sheets, a single blanket, a spread, and a curtain to go over the crib to keep off the flies and more omnivorous insects, will completely furnish the crib. The whole outfit, with proper changes of bed clothing, will cost about fifteen dollars. You can give an individual the privilege of paying fifteen dollars into your treasury, which will allow that individual to own a crib which he or she may name, and must guarantee to keep supplied with bedding as needed. We thought at the Fitch Crèche in Buffalo that invidious distinctions might be made if we allowed cribs to be named for the donors, and therefore gave each individual the privilege of naming his crib for some flower; and all seemed well satisfied, and we got our cribs.

A necessary adjunct to the nursery is a French contrivance, called a pound, which consists of a pen made by a railing, so high that children cannot creep over it, and yet so low that a child just learning to walk may use its hands on it. The inside of the pound is carpeted with some soft material, such as a quilt; and it then becomes a substitute for three or four nurses, because infants not yet able to walk may be put inside. They cannot get away, they are perfectly safe; and yet they have the freedom which an infant often craves.

The furniture for the dormitory of the older children is practically

the same, with the exception of the pound; and perhaps there is no necessity for the crib curtains. The older children should have a play-room besides. They should also have what approximates a dining-room, because your day nursery should teach children manners. At the Fitch Crèche the table is set with all the formality of a private house; and the children are taught to take their seats and eat in an orderly manner, and undoubtedly much good has resulted.

There may be some question of the need of a dormitory for the older children, but any one who rears a child properly knows perfectly well that, when from two to four years of age, it is always the better for a short nap in the beginning of the afternoon; and the children of the poor need it as much as the children of the wealthy.

A most important adjunct of your day nursery is the bath-room. The children should be bathed every day, if your physician thinks their constitution will stand it. You will not have to continue this long, however; for you will find that a child who becomes habituated to cleanliness will cry so for it that the mother herself will keep it clean. We have rarely found it necessary to give a child a daily bath for more than a month or six weeks after its original admission. After that the child was perfectly clean when it came to the institution.

In the Fitch Crèche we have a closet with an air-shaft running through it; and, when the children come from the tenement houses in the morning, their clothing is taken off, and hung in this closet, so that the smell of the tenement does not enter the building, and the clothing gets a very much needed airing.

I think I can tell you best the working of the institution by describing the life of a child for a day. The mother brings her baby about seven o'clock in the morning. She enters the reception-room, not coming into the institution proper at all. A nurse, tidily dressed, with no curl papers in her hair, though it be pretty early, meets the mother, and relieves her of the child, which is taken at once to the bath-room, where its clothing is removed. It is bathed, put into the crèche clothing, and taken into the play-room. So soon as a sufficient number of children arrive, a light breakfast is given them; and then they go again into the play-room, where there are toys to amuse them till the kindergartner arrives. Kindergarten lasts till twelve, with a recess about half-past ten for a few minutes, then dinner, then the play-room again for an hour, then a nap, then more play-room, or, if the weather permits, a little play in the yard. We succeeded in getting the use of two or three lots in our neighborhood, where we have placed beds of sand in which the children play. This sport is enjoyed hugely. Supper is served at half-past four, and later the mother comes for the child.

I omitted to say that, before the child comes in contact with any other, it is carefully examined by the matron for signs of contagious

trouble. If there be the slightest suspicion, we have a small isolation ward where the child is placed till a physician can be called, and the child examined thoroughly. We also avoid contagion by having separate towels, wash-rag, and comb for each child, so that skin or eye troubles cannot be communicated. The result of this care has been that, in a history of thirteen years, the Fitch Crèche, taking children from the most crowded tenement houses of Buffalo, with a yearly average of nearly nine thousand admissions, has never suffered from an epidemic of the slightest nature.

Now, we do not stop with the children. The mother comes for the child anywhere from six to seven o'clock in the evening. If it be a raw day in winter, there is a window which communicates between the kitchen and the reception-room; and all the mother need do is to raise that window, and she will find a cup of good tea ready to hand. The result has been that many a tired mother has found it unnecessary to stop at a grog-shop to get "something strong" on her way home with her child. Besides, the matron takes especial pains to become acquainted with the mother, and visits her once in a while in her home. She encourages her to save money. Once in a while, if she be clean enough, she is taken into the building to see the beauty of orderly and cleanly rooms. You must understand that there is no prim orderliness about the rooms. When the children are playing, the toys are scattered all about; but the floor is clean, and it will take but a minute to pick up the toys and make the room neat. The lesson is rarely lost upon the mother. We find that often our simple little muslin curtain that looks so refreshing is imitated. We find a mother who has known nothing but utterly bare wall and windows, whose only lambrequins are cobwebs, and decorations pictures cut from flashy publications, buying calico of fancy design, and doing some household decoration in her own primitive way.

I do not wish to be considered captious; but I have been asked to make suggestions, and this is what occurred to me first in your Nashville day nursery. The building is new; and your walls are white, never having been decorated. Now, white walls are very disagreeable to the eye. They somehow offend the taste, because everything is blank. There could be a touch put upon those walls which would give a wholly different appearance to your institution, and make it look more like a home. This essential is an important factor in the unconscious training of children. If you put a child into a beautiful, orderly room, the child begins to learn to respect that room. Have you ever observed the awe of a child in entering a magnificent drawing-room? It is a good lesson to the child. It is a good lesson for grown people frequently. I used to receive the poor in an office which had a very expensive Turkish rug on the floor, and it was amusing to notice how the people learned to wipe their feet before they would enter. No one ever admonished them

to do it, but they unconsciously learned the lesson. It will be so with the children. You are performing your mission by enabling a mother who is widowed or divorced, or who has a disabled husband, to earn her own living. You are keeping her children properly. Without any extra waste or expense you can give the child many a lesson never to be forgotten.

A constant effort should be made in the crèche to avoid surrounding it with any luxury which will be impossible in the homes of the poorest. So far as decorations and furniture go, I would recommend the utmost care. And I would have the same care in the diet of the children. Any physician will advise you that namby-pamby diet will never do for the children of the poor. They must have meats. They consume a great deal more fibre than the children of the well-to-do, because they run wild a great deal of the time; and, in addition, you will discover that these children are a great deal more self-reliant than the children of the rich. They are obliged to be. Now, milk and eggs and good butter are excellent articles of diet; but your children will need meat besides, and that more than once a week. At the Fitch Crèche the children have meat once a day, and all the bread and milk they want, and plenty of butter and rice as frequently as the children will take it, and a variety of other farinaceous food.

We impose upon the mothers a payment of five cents a day for the child. That is not compensation, of course, but it is as much as the mother can afford to pay; and although it may be a hardship to the mother, and although through some charitable individual connected with the crèche the money may be restored in one way or another, we insist that, when she comes to the crèche and makes use of it, she must pay the per diem charge for the child, that she may feel we are not extending a charity to her.

As to the expense, I do not believe that a crèche can be run for less than a per diem cost of thirty-five cents; and I advise that under no circumstances should a crèche be opened until you can afford to spend that amount of money. This includes everything, not only the actual daily running expense, but renewal of furniture and the pay of servants. I would also impress upon you that you should not open your crèche until it is complete. It is not right to say, "We are doing the best we can with the funds at our command, and these children are better off with imperfect care than if left on the streets." That may be true enough; but you are assuming a great responsibility when you agree to take care of a woman's child for her, even for a day. If you make only one error, if you have but one bad result, as the logical outcome of imperfect arrangements, you will not only alienate one mother, but the whole crowd of your patrons; and you will have to begin your work over again. Besides, I do not think you have any right to undertake the charge of a child until you are prepared to give that child the best possible care.

Another point. We found in Buffalo that a good many of the children who had been graduated from our crèche were running about the streets after school hours; and we made a special provision to let them come to us in the morning, go then to the public school, come back for a luncheon, and again after the afternoon session. These children are taught useful lessons by having them assist in a small way in the housekeeping duties of the crèche. They go down in the laundry, and make an attempt at washing or folding clothes, or they help the cook pare potatoes or wipe dishes. We make them feel that they are earning the three meals a day that we give them and the pleasure they have in our playroom.

In closing, I feel impelled to tell you of an investigation which I have made here in the city of Nashville. You may have noticed a little girl begging in the corridor of the Maxwell House. That little girl is well known to the charitable people of Nashville. She is about ten years of age, very precocious, with beautiful eyes, that she knows well how to use. Her leaning towards finery is displayed in a very gorgeous pair of patent leather shoes, with paper soles, and great gilt buckles on them, little bits of lace stuck over her dress in amateurish way, etc. We went to visit the family, and found a cottage, consisting of two sleeping-rooms and a small kitchen. The father of this little girl is blind, and the mother is a confirmed opium-eater. They have three children, of whom this little girl is the eldest. She has been begging since she was seven. Either she leads her father about while he begs or she is sent out alone with a certificate from his physician that he is a blind man. She brings home as much as $2.50 a day at times. She buys her own clothing and finery, because she insists that she furnishes the money, and so has a right to spend it. Living with the family, and doing the washing and cooking, is a woman who is divorced from her husband. She has four children, the eldest a boy of thirteen, who earns $8 a month. There are two girls, and the youngest is a boy about a year old. The eldest girl, who is about eleven, was with the child of the blind man. She is not a successful beggar, because she is just learning. The mother insisted that she had not sent her to beg, and never would. The mother stated that her children had been in an orphanage; but she had found that she could rent a room with the blind man and do washing, and so she took her children out of the orphanage. What she had to live on was what she got from washing and the $8 a month that her son earned.

Now, this condition of things is common in the life of the poor, and a common instance of the neglect of the well-to-do. If there were a well-organized charitable system in your city, there would have been an entirely different condition of affairs. In the first place, there was a boy under the proper age working, when he ought to have been at school. Then there were four children of school age who did not go to school at all. There is no politics in a compul-

sory school law, and it is easy to get one. If you had such a law, the police would see that these children were in school in less than twenty-four hours. Then see the danger in the association of these two families. The divorced woman did not impress me as a beggar. She told a straightforward story. It was a pitiful but not uncommon story. But I was convinced that she was exactly ripe to be converted to the theory of the blind beggar, as he expressed it to her that it was perfectly right and perfectly honorable for him to get his living by begging.

Now look at what the citizens of Nashville are laying up for themselves in the future by neglecting these two families, with the wife and daughters who are paupers now, and the children of the other woman,— seven children in all. Can you not see the legacy that the present generation will leave to the next? Can you imagine what size this snowball will be when it stops rolling down hill, if it ever does stop? But our experience shows that it will never stop. It will keep on accumulating paupers and beggars, and criminals and defectives of all sorts, until it will call for the expenditure of millions in the care of dependants, defectives, and delinquents.

Compulsory education and the placing out of children are methods by which you may stop the evil among the children; but greater than all help is your personal contact, citizens of Nashville, who have your own comfortable homes, with the unfortunate "submerged" of your city. You must not think because your community is small that the danger is small. Every individual has a duty to his unfortunate fellows. You have no right to pass through the streets and gather your skirts about you lest you come in contact with somebody who is below your social level. He is a part of the body politic: he is a part of the people. If you are interested in the welfare of the body politic, if you belong to the people, then it is your duty to see that the body politic and the people are as pure, as honest, as upright, as self-respecting, as human energy and divine law can possibly make them.

DISTRICT NURSES.

BY MISS JULIA C. LATHROP.

I am very sorry that Miss Maxwell has been called away; but I am almost glad to speak to-night, because I feel it both a privilege and a duty to bear witness to the work of trained nurses in district visiting. Of course, my knowledge is only that of an observer; and I shall keep to that which I have seen,— the work of the nurses of the Visiting Nurse Association of Chicago.

This is a society of women, incorporated in 1890. It districts the city, so as to embrace those quarters where there is most necessity for gratuitous nursing, and supports a nurse for each of these dis-

tricts, now eight in number. The nurse has a headquarters in some drug-store or other central place where she keeps a cupboard of supplies, and where messages and telephone calls can be left for her.

If patients can pay, they are expected to do so; but, as a matter of fact, the services are free. 2,579 patients were visited in 1893, and $138 was received as the total amount of fees.

The nurses are graduates of the best training schools, and are, as a rule, women who choose district nursing because of humane and generous interest in preference to private duty with its higher pay.

To speak of the daily labors of the district nurse, I will choose the one whose headquarters are at Hull House as an example.

She comes about nine o'clock in the morning, wearing the uniform which is familiar and beloved all over the town, takes down the calls left for her, and starts out with her bag packed with disinfectants, soap, towels, vaseline, clinical thermometer, records, and a bewildering number of things.

She makes perhaps a dozen calls. Among them she visits an Italian boy with a burned leg, and dresses the limb. She finds a Jewish man ill with typhoid: she takes temperature, pulse, and respiration, gives bath, gets the bed made and room tidied, leaves instructions about medicine and diet, and by example and directions does all she can toward insuring for her patient the care needed between her visits. She gives massage and alcohol bath to a girl with spinal disease. She dresses the wound of a boy with hip disease. When necessary, she gives orders upon diet kitchen for special food or for medicine, or decides to report a case to the Relief Nurse.

This is a suggestion of her daily rounds. One must see the exquisite relief taken by the district nurse into sick-rooms whose filth and squalor add a new terror to illness, in order to fully realize her beneficence.

It is a revelation to see the ease and delicacy with which she performs tasks impossibly repulsive to an untrained person, and the skill with which she evolves approximate order out of tenement-house chaos. One is not surprised by the grateful affection of her patients, nor by the deference paid to her gentle authority. She is an educator in nursing, in cleanliness, and in good housekeeping. If social economics permit us to confide in the soundness of any charitable effort, certainly district nursing, which helps to make the dependent again producers, and which elevates the standard of decency in every tenement, may continue its gracious career.

Mrs. C. W. Fairbanks, of Indiana.— The honor of addressing you this evening was unexpected, but it gives me unfeigned pleasure to participate even to so small a degree in the closing hour of this convocation. It fell to my lot to be a member of the State Board of Charities of Indiana for the first three years of its existence. This relation is a most memorable one to me; for this Board, under the

laws of Indiana, exercises supervision over the great benevolent, penal, and correctional institutions of the State. This relation brought to my attention most vividly the sufferings and misfortunes of the host who are imprisoned in mind as well as body,— a veritable army, exceeding in number and intensity of suffering all I had ever imagined.

It showed how ample the field, and how urgent the necessity for the formation of such a Board. The wisdom of the legislature was evinced in the composition of the Board, it having provided for the appointment of women to membership. This was simply responsive to the advanced thought of the times, which recognizes the signal efficiency of women in all organized charities. The experience of the Board has shown that women members may reach many abuses and apply remedies where men would be unable to do so. The presence of women upon the Board gives a sense of nearness, of sympathy and clemency, to the convict; and the dependent convicts have felt freer to ask proper favors. They have asked women members to visit a sick mother, to write to a sister or brother, to look after and care for their little children, and to render countless little offices which they would hesitate to ask a man to perform, and which, not to make invidious distinctions, he could not so well perform. For this State, rich in natural beauties as in noble hospitality, I can offer no better wish than that it may have as an adjunct to its care of its dependants a board of charities part of whose number shall be chosen from the ranks of its merciful and practical women.

Mrs. Margaret R. Wickens, Chicago, Superintendent State Home for Female Juvenile Offenders.— I have enjoyed more than I can tell the address of the first speaker. Since coming here, I have heard some of our earnest men and women debating what would be the result of women taking up public work, what the outcome of it would be, who would stay at home and take care of the children. But to-night I feel relieved. I believe in the eternal fitness of things; and, if our young men are to be so ably trained in this direction as the first speaker showed himself to be, our women may still go on!

I am here to present the work of the National Relief Corps, an organization of 140,000 women, banded together in fraternity, charity, and loyalty; but I have found no opportunity to put this matter before you. I shall be glad if another year this organization can be included in the programme. We have expended in the last year $58,666 in charity. We have embodied in our work almost every point that has been recommended in this Conference. This is a satisfaction. We have gained much here, especially by sharing the excellent spirit of the meetings, and we hope, in turn, will have much to give. I have been reminded, while here, of a remark once made by Miss Frances Willard at a large meeting of the superintendents of the different departments in temperance work.

It seems to me, she said, that every superintendent feels that her work is the very most important thing, and she goes into it with the enthusiasm of that idea; and so, when we come together in general convention, we borrow fire from each other. The same may be said of the different departments of this Conference.

A note was presented, signed by Mrs. D'Arcambal and Mrs. Walker asking that a special meeting be held during the Conference of 1895, for women only, to discuss such interests as concern reformatories and industrial homes, and that such a meeting be incorporated in the regular programme of the Conference.

Referred to the Committee on Organization.

President STORRS.— A year ago there were present with us a few who were as full of life and earnestness and devotion as we are to-night, and they have fallen by the way. I will ask Mr. Alexander Johnson to present some resolutions in memory of our departed friends.

The following resolutions were then offered by Mr. Johnson: —

The committee to whom was referred the memorials of our deceased members reports as follows: —

Since the last meeting the Conference has lost by death several valued and honored members. It is seemly that we should name them over once again, and recall to our memories their services to the cause and our love for themselves. Hon. Oscar Craig was for many years a member of the New York Board of Public Charities and its president. He has for many years attended this Conference regularly, for some years past was chairman of the Committee on the History of State Boards of Charities, and previously had read papers of value and taken part in the discussions. He has been active in charitable matters, and a leader in philanthropy for many years in the city of Rochester.

Captain Hiram S. Shurtleff was superintendent of outdoor poor of the Board of State Charities of Massachusetts. He has attended the National Conference regularly since 1885, and has often usefully contributed to its discussions. Those who knew him best loved and valued him the most, and the loss of his genial personality from our midst is indeed a great one to us.

Dr. Isaac N. Kerlin was one of our most faithful members, and did more than any one else to bring the Conference into touch with the work of the care and training of the feeble-minded. His enthusiasm was contagious. His love for his work and for his wards was an inspiration. His papers read before this Conference were always of absorbing interest and wise, and long will be authoritative references for the student and the writer. He built up the institution at Elwyn until in many respects it leads the work in the world, and no one can profess a greater knowledge of what can be and what should be done for idiots, imbeciles, and epileptics who is not familiar with his work.

Besides these who have been active members of the Conference, others no less loved by the comparatively few who knew them have gone from us. Among these we would mention Miss Parker, of Boston, who, although seldom taking part in discussions, always showed an intelligent and kindly interest in all the work of the Conference, and who, dying, left the magnificent bequest of $150,000 to the Radcliffe College.

Others there may have been whose names will occur to other members of this body: they are no less honored and valued by us all. They pass away, and others take their places, or, rather, not *their places*, but other places, to do the same work or similar work in the same spirit. None the less are our hearts sore when we think of those who have gone.

These resolutions were adopted by a rising vote.

On motion of Mr. T. J. Charlton it was voted that the Conference should appoint a permanent Memorial Committee, whose duty it should be to prepare suitable memorials of members who might pass away.

A resolution of thanks was offered on behalf of the Executive Committee by Hon. W. P. Letchworth, who prefaced it with the following remarks: —

Mr. Letchworth.— In presenting a set of resolutions at the request of the Executive Committee, I wish to say for myself that in two marked respects this Conference differs from others that I have attended. First, in the presence of young ladies who have acted as assistants, and who have in various ways promoted the interests of the Conference through their self-assumed and patience-trying duties. Such service could have been inspired only by the most unselfish motives, and the aid of these young ladies has been especially grateful. Second, in the completeness with which its proceedings have been reported. I have attended nearly all the Conferences, including the first held twenty-one years ago in the city of New York; but I have never before known our proceedings to be so clearly, correctly, and intelligently reported by the public press. To follow the work of a great body like this, to give accurately the true spirit and meaning of all its papers and debates, is an art which has been found in the highest degree in the reports given by the Nashville papers.

Resolved, That the members of the Twenty-first National Conference of Charities and Correction desire to extend their hearty thanks to Judge Caldwell, chairman, and the members of the Local Committee for their constant, unvaried, and self-sacrificing efforts to provide for the comfort and convenience of the delegates to the Conference; to the fair lady pages for their attention and polite ministrations; to the accomplished ladies and gentlemen of Nashville who have added to the enjoyment of these meetings by their delightful music; to the daily press of the city for intelligent, full, and accurate reports of the proceedings of the Conference; to the Chamber of Commerce and to General Jackson, proprietor of the extensive and beautiful estate of Belle Meade, for an enjoyable visit to that noted place, and to the president of the Nashville, Chattanooga & St. Louis Railroad for free transportation to the same; to the Young Men's Christian Association, to the McKendree Methodist Church, and to the proprietors of the Bijou and Vendome Theatres for the use of their commodious and attractive edifices; to the various organizations, institutions, associations, and societies which have so kindly extended invitations to us; to the hotels which have afforded the delegates very pleasant accommodations; to the ladies of Nashville for a very cord-

ial reception at the Maxwell House; and to the citizens generally for a hospitality so kind, so courteous, and so generous that the Conference at Nashville will be one of the most memorable in the history of these national gatherings, and will ever remain a most happy memory.

Mr. A. O. WRIGHT, Wisconsin.— I second the resolutions. I wish to say that we have discovered in Nashville a wonderful amount of the best society who are engaged in charitable work. The ladies especially who are engaged in the management of charitable institutions have rallied round this Conference, and have made it an enjoyable thing for us, and I believe also for themselves, because in giving to us they have got good to themselves, as we all get good when we do good. We have had more than the usual amount of local help; and, while it may be invidious to specify, I do want, as Secretary, to especially thank Miss Fanny Battelle and her assistant, Miss Davis, who have given their whole time this week to the work of the machinery of the Conference, and who have been deprived of attending the sessions in doing so.

The resolutions were then unanimously passed.

Judge R. R. CALDWELL, Chairman of the Local Committee.— *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,*— I most heartily thank you from the depths of my heart, and I know I express the feelings of the Local Committee and of the citizens of Nashville when I thank you for the courteous and very flattering manner in which you have adopted these resolutions. You have been to us a great comfort, a great educator. You have been to us a living illustration of charitable work and of high moral principle. We shall ever remember the Conference of Charities, not only as a body, but each one of you as individuals, with the warmest feelings.

We are to have to-morrow night a mass meeting to consider the best method of organizing our charities. I have been asked whether we want ladies present on that occasion. I hope the time will never come when women are not wanted on such occasions. We want them for the experiences and for the inspiration they can give. We want the ladies; and we want the doctors, the lawyers, the ministers, the laboring men, and everybody interested in the advancement of charity and in carrying it on in a systematic way.

President STORRS.— Mr. Robert Treat Paine, of Boston, has been elected President of the Conference for 1895. As he is not here, I will ask Dr. Hoyt to speak for him.

Dr. CHARLES S. HOYT, New York.— The National Conference of Charities and Correction since its organization, twenty-one years ago, has had but five meetings on the seaboard, three of which have been in the State of New York, one in Baltimore, and one in Boston. The men and women of the Western, South-western, and Middle States have completely routed us of the East; and we have gone

West so long that we now need to do missionary work in the East. We are therefore going to New Haven next year.

I think I can say for the gentleman whom you have elected for your president — Mr. Robert Treat Paine, of Massachusetts — that you have chosen a ripe scholar on the questions which will come before the Conference. He has been often with us; and I think I am justified in saying that he will devote his best energies and talent to making the Conference of 1895 a success, equal, if possible, to the success of the Conference of 1894.

There is a great contrast between this Conference and the first meeting, when there were but eleven members present. Of these, John V. L. Pruyn, Theodore Dwight, and Nathan Bishop have passed away. Eight still live. The report of our proceedings has greatly changed. The first meeting was reported by Mr. F. B. Sanborn on small bits of paper. Its proceedings in its early years occupied a few pages in the Annals of the American Social Science Association. Then a secretary took its proceedings in longhand. In the year 1876 I had the good fortune to engage the husband of our Mrs. Barrows, our stenographer, who was also a good stenographer, which so relieved the secretary that it was provided that there should be a special stenographer; and Mrs. Barrows has been in continued service almost ever since that time. You have doubtless learned the care she exercises in doing this work. I think you who are interested, or who have addressed this Conference, may rest assured that, when the volume of its Proceedings comes out, you will be fully reported and your remarks properly edited. So much for Mrs. Barrows.

To you, Mr. President, I desire to say a word. You are the twenty-first President of this Conference, three of whom have passed away by death, — Mr. Pruyn, Dr. Byers, and Oscar C. McCulloch. The others are still living. I believe you are the youngest member who has ever been elected president of the Conference. I have known you from the time of your appearance among us; for I may say, with pardonable pride — having attended all of its sessions — that the members of this Conference are as familiar to me as the faces of my neighbors, and I can greet three-quarters of them by name. When you were elected President, I had strong hopes of your success; and these hopes have been fully realized. We, the older members of the Conference, had watched your course as Secretary and as the chairman of committees; and we felt sure that under your guidance this Conference would be a success. I congratulate you upon that success. When the gavel falls for the last time, you will be relegated to that dignified official body, the Council of the Conference, of which our venerable friend from Wisconsin, Mr. Elmore, is the senior member, and you will be the junior.

President STORRS. — The Twenty-first National Conference of Charities and Correction will now adjourn to take up its work at

Memphis to-morrow night, the final adjournment to New Haven taking place at the close of the meeting in Memphis.

THE MEMPHIS SESSION.

Tuesday, May 29.

On the adjournment of the Nashville meeting many of the members of the Conference went by invitation to Memphis, to hold the closing session of the Conference of Charities. After a public breakfast and a morning trip down the Mississippi the meeting assembled at 3.30 P.M. in the rooms of the Woman's Council, where they were received by Rev. Dr. Davenport, rector of Calvary Episcopal Church. Addresses were made by the mayor of Memphis, General Brinkerhoff, Rev. Dr. Ninnally, of the United Charities, Dr. J. B. Lindsley, Secretary of the State Board of Health, Mr. Homer Folks, of New York, Mrs. Agnes L. D'Arcambal, of Michigan, and Mr. E. C. Faulkner, of Kansas.

At the evening session Mr. Folks read a paper entitled "The Removal of Children from Almshouses," which gave a *résumé* of the movement in that line in the United States. He then showed a number of stereopticon views of children in almshouses, picturing the same children after they had been in families for a few months. Other views showed young boys in prison cells, and contrasted with them pictures taken from family life in refined homes, where, through the children's aid societies, they had subsequently been sent.

Addresses were also made by General Brinkerhoff, Mr. Faulkner, and Mrs. Lucy M. Sickles, of Michigan.

Adjourned to meet in New Haven, Conn., May, 1895.

XIV.

Child-saving Work.

SECTIONAL MEETINGS.

First Session, Thursday Afternoon, May 24, 1894.

Mr. Homer Folks, Secretary of the State Charities Aid Association of New York, chairman, called the section to order, and outlined the programme which had been prepared for the meetings of the section. He called attention to the fact that this is the only national gathering of the people who have assumed the entire responsibility for the 100,000 dependent children in the United States, 1 of every 250 children of the country. Probably no other section of the Conference had to deal with practical problems of such magnitude; and yet in no other section did there seem to be so little consensus of opinion, so little common ground. It was very necessary, therefore, that we should all feel that we had come to the Conference as students of the whole great problem, not as partisan advocates of a single method. All the leading methods had been given a place in the programme and an effort had been made to approach the general subject from a new point of view at each session.

Mr. Lyman P. Alden, Superintendent of the Rose Orphans' Home of Terre Haute, Indiana, read a paper on "The Ideal Institution." Mr. C. E. Faulkner, Superintendent of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, Atchison, Kan., opened the discussion on Mr. Alden's paper. He thought institutions should be so arranged as to allow individual work with the children, giving each child an opportunity to develop along such lines as his talents may indicate. Mr. M. V. Crouse, Superintendent of the Children's Home, Cincinnati, Ohio, followed, saying that the work of such an institution is often misunderstood. The institution should be constructed with a view to the work it has to perform, and that the work should be to receive the children and place them in homes as soon as possible. Mr. S. J. Hathaway, Marietta, Ohio, said that in Ohio, since 1866, forty-six County Children's Homes had been instituted. The machinery should be as simple as possible, and it is not necessary to erect large buildings. Children taken from the streets should be kept in the institution until bad habits are eradicated. Mr. Michael

Heymann, Superintendent of Jewish Orphans' Home, New Orleans, thought the conditions surrounding the institution had much to do with the question whether children should be placed in homes. There should be as few children in an institution as possible. A family home is desirable, if the child is ready to go. Employ in every locality the method that suits best. Mr. C. W. Birtwell, General Secretary Boston Children's Aid Society, thought the attitude of Mr. Alden would debar cities from building institutions, as it is very difficult for cities to acquire land outside of the city. He preferred the cottage dining-room to the congregate, and disagreed with Mr. Alden as to the best size for an institution. While it may be true that better schools and a finer scheme of education can be built up in a large institution than in a small one, this difficulty is met in the small institution by the attendance of the children at the public schools.

Mr. Michael Heymann advocated the attendance of the children of the institution in the public schools.

Rev. Thomas M. Yundt, Superintendent Bethany Orphans' Home, Womelsdorf, Pa., spoke of amusements in institutions, favoring the location of institutions in the country where the children will not be penned in. He thought we should get out of institution ruts. There should be no fence about the yard. When the children are not in school, they should have the liberty of the premises. He said that in his institution the children go where they please on the farm during play hours, build traps, and catch rabbits in season, go berrying, hold entertainments, and occupy the time fully in such ways. He thought the location of the institution in the country would prevent the attendance of the children in the public schools, and that by all means the institution should have its own school.

Mr. G. A. Merrill, Superintendent Minnesota State Public School for Dependent Children.—The games and sports of childhood are as important in the development of children as are work and study. The institution should provide pleasant play-grounds, fitted up with swings, turning-bars, croquet, and tennis, etc. The cottages should be provided with play-rooms in which are kept all kinds of innocent indoor games, and reading-rooms in which are the best children's papers and magazines. Parties and socials should be given, invitations extended to those who attend, and the children taught how to act in company. Refreshments should be served, and teachers and other ladies of the institution should attend.

No corporal punishment should be allowed. The whip is an unsafe weapon to place in the hands of attendants, and there are other methods just as effective. There should be a responsible person with the children all the time, and in this way the necessity for punishing will largely be avoided.

Mr. A. N. Woodruff, Superintendent of the Michigan State Public School.—The discipline of the Michigan State Public School is sim-

ple and easy. There is very little quarrelling, and we have no attendant with the children on the play-ground. The amusements are such as children are fond of, and there is provided for them such means of amusement as are needed. A good graded school is maintained in the institution.

Hon. Thomas Mars, member of the Board of Control of the Michigan State Public School, said he had been for years connected with child-saving work. He formerly believed that education in an institution was necessary before placing children in homes, but now he believed that it was not necessary to keep them very long before placing them in homes. He spoke of the county agents of Michigan, and urged the need of good agents who will recommend only good homes.

Mr. F. L. Sanborn, Superintendent of the Wisconsin State Public School, spoke of the work of that institution, saying that eight hundred and eleven children had been placed in homes and two hundred and sixteen remained in the school. They have no county agents, but employ a State agent who looks up homes for the children and visits those placed out. He spoke briefly of the amusements furnished in his institution, and stated that no corporal punishments were allowed.

Mr. Birtwell thought punishments should only be inflicted by the head of the institution, who should report to a still higher power. He objected to sending certain classes of children to bed for punishment. Sunday walks, a good library, entertainments by glee clubs, etc., are excellent means of amusement. Accidental offences should be overlooked. All phases of the child's character should receive attention.

Mr. Alden said institutions are between two fires. A certain class of people complain that the children don't have enough. Another class complains that they have too much. As to punishments, he had never heard of a method of punishment that every one would approve of. Each case must be considered by itself, and dealt with according to the good judgment of the person inflicting the punishment.

Second Session, Friday Afternoon, May 25.

Called to order by chairman.

Mr. C. W. Birtwell opened the meeting with a ten-minute talk on "Investigation of Families." He said we must keep the application for a child before approving it until the family has been thoroughly investigated. As to references, clergymen, lawyers, physicans, merchants, and all who may be in possession of information concerning the applicant should be consulted. Get information from all sources, as no one source can always be relied upon. Impanel an independent jury of neighbors. Gather lists of reputable citizens and cata-

logue them. Write these people: "I am considering the question of placing a child with Mr. and Mrs. ——. I need to know the rugged truth concerning them." This gives a means of information unavailable elsewhere.

Rev. Frank M. Gregg, of the National Children's Home Society of Chicago, spoke of the methods of investigation of that society. Their superintendents in the various States have charge of the work, and in many cases make personal investigation of the families applying for children. He said that their theory is that there are one hundred thousand childless homes for the one hundred thousand homeless children.

Rev. E. P. Savage spoke of the Local Advisory Boards appointed by the Children's Home Society, to whom are referred many of the applicants for children.

Mr. Ernest P. Bicknell, Secretary of the Board of State Charities of Indiana, asked Mr. Birtwell what proportion of letters of inquiry concerning applicants for children are answered.

Mr. Birtwell replied that about nine-tenths of such letters were answered.

Mr. H. W. Lewis, Agent of the Board of Children's Guardians, Washington, D.C., spoke of his work of investigating homes when he was agent of the Minnesota State School. He would give more for fifteen minutes in a home as a sewing-machine agent or buyer of stock than for all the correspondence that could be carried on in six months in determining the fitness of a home for a child. Independent references are good, but personal inspection is better.

Mrs. Richardson, of Massachusetts, spoke of her methods of investigation. She believed in a personal investigation, and would not trust the opinions of others,—ministers, business, and professional men.

Mr. J. J. Kelso, Superintendent of Neglected and Dependent Children of Ontario, spoke of the methods of investigating homes and placing of children in Canada. The Province of Ontario is divided into districts, with committees in each district who have charge of the work of placing dependent children.

Mr. H. W. Lewis, of Washington, D.C., read a ten-minute paper on "Terms for Placing Children in Homes." Miss C. H. Pemberton, Acting Superintendent of the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania, thought it would be better to pay families for training children in order to get the best advantages for them rather than to require the families to pay the children a sum of money at the expiration of an indenture period. Mr. Alden thought that a child could not earn much money over and above the cost of its support up to the age of eighteen. Mrs. Richardson said they had done away with indenture contracts in Massachusetts.

Mr. Merrill said he had, with very few exceptions, been able to place the children that had come under the care of the State Public

School of Minnesota in good homes, one condition of the indenture agreement being that they were to receive a small sum of money — girls, $50; and boys, $75 — at the age of eighteen. Each child placed out is also to attend school not less than four months each year, and to have the advantages of church and Sunday-school. Many of the younger children are legally adopted. Mr. Woodruff said they had had no difficulty in Michigan in securing good homes for their children on condition that they be paid a small sum of money at the age of eighteen and be given school advantages.

Third Session, Saturday Afternoon, May 26.

Section called to order at two o'clock by chairman.
Rev. E. P. Savage offered the following resolution: —

Whereas a heavy and constantly increasing burden to society results from the desertion of wives and children by husbands and fathers, and of unmarried mothers by the fathers of their children; and whereas this wide-spread and rapidly growing evil is encouraged by the almost universal immunity from punishment of the guilty man on account of the inability of the deserted wife or mother to follow and secure arrest or reparation by reason of the expense and the lack of any adequate agency through which she may operate, — therefore

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed to take this matter under advisement, and ascertain whether a remedy can be secured; and, if so, to report such a plan at the next annual meeting of this body.

After discussion the resolution was referred to the chairman, with instructions to have the matter brought before the Committee on Child-saving Work of the next Conference.

The next topic considered was "Supervision of Children Placed in Families." Rev. E. P. Savage gave a ten-minute address on this subject, emphasizing the importance of careful supervision in all successful work in placing dependent children in homes. Supervision should begin before the children are placed, by a most thorough investigation of the home. Supervision after they are placed should be direct and indirect, formal and informal, at stated times and unexpected times. Reports should be obtained from each child from one source or another as often as every six months.

The question was raised as to what was the custom of the various institutions in regard to the giving of the addresses of the children to the parents of the children. The chairman asked for a statement by each of the delegates as to their custom in this regard, and received the following responses: —

Mr. Merrill, of the Minnesota State Public School.— Not as a rule. Mr. Savage, of the Children's Home Society.— We leave it to the parties taking the children. Mr. Crouse, of the Children's Home, Cincinnati, Ohio.— No. Mrs. Richardson, of Massachusetts.— No. Mr. Birtwell, of the Boston Children's Aid Society.—When children are adopted, we leave it to the persons taking the children; and,

when children are boarded out, we give the information. Miss Pemberton, of Children's Aid Society, Pennsylvania.— We nearly always give the information. We consider that we have no right to withhold it, unless the character of the parents is very bad. Mrs. Wood, of Chicago.— As a rule, no. Mr. Hathaway, of Washington County Children's Home, Ohio.— Not as a rule. Mr. Kelso, of Toronto.— No. Mr. Alden, of Rose Orphans' Home, Indiana. — No, except in unusual cases. Mr. Woodruff, of the Michigan State Public School. — No. Mr. Sanborn, of the Wisconsin State Public School.— Very seldom.

Miss C. H. Pemberton, of Philadelphia, read a paper, "How far is Boarding Out Necessary in the Development of the Family System?"

Mr. Crouse stated that he would like to know the outcome of the boarding-out system.

Mr. Alden.— It has been my idea that the very class of children described in that paper are the ones that most need institutional life.

Miss Pemberton stated in answer to questions that the average expense of boarding out in Pennsylvania, including administrative expenses, is from $2 to $3 a week per capita. We board about two hundred and fifty children. As a child improves and is educated, the rate of payment is reduced, and later payment ceases.

Mr. Birtwell stated that in Massachusetts boarding cost $3 per week.

Mr. Alden quoted Mr. Tallack, of England, as opposed to the boarding-out system.

Mr. Birtwell protested, stating that Mr. Tallack is not the best authority on boarding out or caring for dependent children. They disagree in England on the merits of the boarding-out system. The Australian system is rich in its experience in this line, especially in the care of infants.

In answer to the question, "Do Neglected Children need Institutional Life?" the following answers were given: —

Mr. Woodruff, of the Michigan State Public School.— The majority of them do. I do not think a single child has deteriorated as a result of his life in the Michigan State Public School.— Mr. Alden, of the Rose Orphans' Home, Indiana.— I think life in a good institution is beneficial to the classes of children that are sent to them. They do not deteriorate as a result of institution life. Mr. Sanborn, of the Wisconsin State Public School.— I do not think that institution life is detrimental to children, for a time at least. Mr. Birtwell, of the Children's Aid Society, Boston.— Some children need institutional life, and some do not. There is one class of girls that I think should always be kept in an institution. I refer to those who are not very bright. Perhaps they could not be called imbecile, but they have not sufficient mind or strength of character to resist temptation. Mrs. Dewing, of the Orphans' Home, Kalamazoo, Mich.— I think there

are many children that need to be trained and helped after they are taken from the streets, before they are placed in homes. Mr. Hathaway, of the Washington County (Ohio) Children's Home.— I think some children need institution life, and some do not. Mr. Johnson, of Massachusetts.— An institution benefits children for a few weeks. Give them homes as soon as possible. Mr. Mars, of Michigan.— I think the best way is to place the children in homes as soon as you can. Mr. Savage, of the Children's Home Society, St. Paul, Minn. — I think it is very dangerous to bring together a large number of children of this class. Those who have acquired vicious habits will have a bad influence over the more innocent ones. I think it is desirable to place them in homes immediately. Mr. Merrill, of the Minnesota State Public School.— If children deteriorate in an institution, I think there must be something wrong with that institution. The institution should be located on a farm in the country, organized on the cottage plan, with sufficient teachers and attendants of high character to give the most careful and constant attention to the children. Under such conditions it is possible to correct bad habits, give the children a start in education, and prepare them for adoption into better families than we could get to take them without this preparatory training.

Fourth Session, Monday Afternoon, May 28.

Section called to order at 2 P.M. by chairman.

A paper on "The Advantages and Disadvantages of an Exclusive State System for the Care of Dependent Children" was presented by G. A. Merrill, Superintendent of the State Public School, Minnesota.

A paper was read by S. J. Hathaway on "The Advantages of the County System for the Care of Dependent Children."

Mr. L. P. Alden thought the State system much better than the county system. The county system was, in his opinion, more expensive, and tended to increase the number of children to be cared for.

Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York, addressed the meeting on "The Advantages of Private Corporations in the Care of Dependent Children."

The chairman called attention to some of the unfortunate results of supporting children at public expense in private institutions in New York City and State.

Mr. J. J. Kelso, Superintendent of Neglected Children of Ontario, explained the recently organized Ontario system. The system provides against cruelty, against placing children in institutions to remain permanently, and provides temporary shelters in each county where children are retained until homes in private families can be provided. Children's Aid Societies are established in each locality.

There are about seventy electoral districts in the Province of Ontario, in each of which there is a visiting committee whose duty it is to watch over and guard the interests of the children placed out. All children are placed in the Province of Ontario.

In adjourning the meeting, the chairman expressed the hope that the delegates would make an earnest effort to bring their daily work for the coming year up to the level of the better ideal they had gained at the Conference, and that they would study carefully the results of this work, and thus be able to bring to the next Conference new and valuable items of information.

TREASURER'S STATEMENT.

JOHN M. GLENN, TREASURER, *in account with* NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION:

Dr.

1893				
June 15.	To Balance as per report of this date			$2,323.34
	To Cash received proceeds of sales of Nineteenth and previous reports: —			
	From State Board of Minnesota		$112.50	
	From State Board of Indiana		56.25	
	From sundry sales		85.50	254.25
	To Cash received proceeds of sales of Twentieth Report: —			
	From State Boards of			
	Massachusetts	$112.50		
	Michigan	112.50		
	Rhode Island	16.20		
	Connecticut	7.50		
	Wyoming	1.50	$250.20	
	From sundry sales		220.75	470.95
	To Cash received membership fees in Twenty-first Conference			184.00
	To Cash received from advance order for Twenty-first Report			1.50
	To Cash received interest on deposits			78.35
				$3,312.39

Cr.

By Cash paid Geo. H. Ellis:			
For Twentieth Report (2,000 copies, 509 pages), including composition, paper, press-work, electrotyping, heliotype portrait, etc.		$1,535.10	
Binding 1,500 copies, at 18 cents		270.00	
Express, postage, packing, etc.		81.90	$1,887.00
By Cash paid H. H. Hart, telegrams, etc., account of Twentieth Conference			28.63
By Cash paid Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, editing Twentieth Report		50.00	
Postage and telegrams		5.00	55.00
Amount carried forward			$1,970.63

Amount brought forward		$1,970.63
By Cash paid Rees P. Pugh, stenographic report of Proceedings of Twentieth Conference		32.74
By Cash paid L. C. Storrs, balance for clerk hire, Twentieth Conference	$50.00	
Postage, telegrams, etc., Twenty-first Conference	10.52	60.52
By Cash paid James H. Humphreys, insurance premium on back volumes to Sept. 11, 1894		9.67
By Cash paid Jno. H. Murphy & Co., printing and stationery		39.15
By Cash paid T. M. Blondell, typewriting		13.55
By Cash paid Friedenwald Co., printing circulars, etc., Twentieth Report		29.20
By Cash paid M. W. Brown, addressing circulars Twentieth Report	$7.25	
Postage	1.20	8.45
By Cash paid City Library Association, Springfield, Mass., back volumes		5.50
By Cash paid Thompson & Van Buren, Twenty-first Conference, stationery and printing	$7.25	
Second Announcement	75.40	82.65
By Cash paid A. O. Wright, postage, Twenty-first Conference		120.00
By Cash paid postage and telegrams, etc.		1.70
		$2,373.76
By Balance		938.63
		$3,312.39

(E. & O. E.) JOHN M. GLENN.

MAY 21, 1894.

Examined and approved,

ALEXANDER JOHNSON,
Chairman Auditing Committee.

To Balance in Provident Savings Bank of Baltimore	$938.63
Amount due from State Boards	202.50
Amount due from other sources, say	25.00
	$1,166.13

Copies of Reports of Conference of Charities and Correction on hand 1894:—

1874,	137 paper		1887,	40 cloth	270 paper
1881,	36 "		1888,	76 "	35 "
1882,	40 "		1889,	258 "	415 "
1883,	65 "		1890,	18 "	190 "
1884,	148 "		1891,	242 "	27 "
1885,	16 cloth	1 paper	1892,	235 "	254 "
1886,	24 "	37 "	1893,	560 "	

LIST OF MEMBERS.

* Present at Nashville.
† Delegates appointed by Governors of States.

Canada.

*†Kelso, J. J., State Superintendent of Neglected and Dependent Children of Ontario, Toronto.

Alabama.

*Tutweiler, Miss Julia S., Secretary, State Association, Livingston.

California.

Bank, E. Carl, Superintendent, Preston School of Industry, Ione.
Conger, Rev. E. L., D.D., Vice-President, Charity Organization Society, Pasadena.
Cooper, Miss Harriet, Superintendent, Golden Gate Kindergarten Association, 1902 Vallejo Street, San Francisco.
Fitch, Miss Virginia, General Secretary, Associated Charities, 703 Bush Street, San Francisco.
Lindley, Walter, Superintendent, Whittier State School, Whittier.
McLean, Rev. J. K., President, Pacific Theological Seminary, 520 13th Street, Oakland.

Colorado.

Appel, J. S., State Board of Charities and Corrections, Denver.

Connecticut.

Bacon, Miss Rebekah G., State Board of Charities, New Haven.
*Fairbank, W. G., Superintendent, Connecticut Industrial School for Girls, Middletown.
*Fairbank, Mrs. W. G., Assistant Superintendent, Connecticut Industrial School for Girls, Middletown.
Farnam, Henry W., Director, Organized Charities Association, 43 Hillhouse Avenue, New Haven.
Griswold, Miss Josephine M., Children's Aid Society, 18 Gardiner Building, Hartford.
Hall, Miss Mary, State Board of Charities, Hartford.
*Knight, George H., M.D., Superintendent, Connecticut School for Imbeciles, Lakeville.
*Knight, Mrs. G. H., Lakeville.
Merriam, Alexander R., Professor of Practical Theology, Hartford Theological Seminary, Hartford.
Miller, B. N. B., Superintendent, Open Hearth, Hartford
*Smith, H. D., President, Girls' Industrial School, Plantsville.
Smith, Mrs. Virginia T., 39 Imlay Street, Hartford.
Spencer, George F., State Board of Charities, Deep River
Tracy, Dr. A. W., President, State Board of Charities, Meriden.
Whittlesey, H. C., Secretary, State Board of Charities, Middletown.

Delaware.

*Clark, Mrs. Mary A. T., Superintendent, Associated Charities, Wilmington.
Gause, J. Taylor, Associated Charities, Wilmington.
Palmer, Wilmer, Treasurer and Secretary, Ferris Industrial School, 1307 Rodney Street, Wilmington.
Taylor, Daniel W., President, Associated Charities, Wilmington.
*Warner, Mrs. Emalia P., Vice-President, Associated Charities, 1202 Delaware Avenue, Wilmington.

District of Columbia.

*Hallam, Orrin B., Board of Children's Guardians, Washington.
*Lewis, Herbert W., Agent, Board of Children's Guardians, Washington.
Woodbury, Mrs. A. L., President, Mission School of Cookery and Housework, 1319 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington.
Wright, Carroll D., Commissioner, United States Department of Labor, Washington.

Idaho.

Gault, Franklin B., President, University of Idaho, Moscow.

Illinois.

*Curtiss, George W., Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities, Stockton.
Enrich, Mrs. E. F., President, Charity Council, 67 North 4th Street, Aurora.
*Fulcomer, Daniel, Lecturer in Social Science, University of Chicago, Chicago.
*Gregg, Rev. Frank M., D.D., Assistant General Superintendent, Children's Home Society, Chicago.

Henderson, Rev. Charles R., D.D., Associate Professor of Sociology, University of Chicago, Chicago.
Hobbs, J. B., 343 La Salle Avenue, Chicago.
Lathrop, Miss Julia C., Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities, Hull House, Chicago.
*Morgan, Mrs. Fannie E., Superintendent, Illinois Industrial School for Girls, South Evanston.
Rosenthal, Julius, 3247 Wabash Avenue, Chicago.
Trusdell, Rev. C. G., General Superintendent, Chicago Relief and Aid Society, 51 and 53 La Salle Street, Chicago.
*Wickins, Mrs. Margaret R., Superintendent, State Home for Female Juvenile Offenders, Chicago.
*Wines, Rev. Frederick H., LL. D., Special Agent on Crime, Pauperism, and Benevolence, 11th Census, Springfield.
*Wood, Mrs. Glen, Secretary, Children's Aid Society, Chicago.

Indiana.

*Alden, Lyman P., Superintendent, Rose Orphans' Home, Terre Haute.
*Bicknell, Ernest P., Secretary Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
Brown, Prof. Demarchus C., Board of State Charities, Irvington.
*Charlton, Mrs. Alice R., Matron, Indiana Reform School for Boys, Plainfield.
*Charlton, T. J., Superintendent, Indiana Reform School for Boys, Plainfield.
*Elder, John R., Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
*Grout, C. S., General Secretary, Charity Organization Society, Indianapolis.
*Johnson, Alexander, Superintendent, Indiana School for Feeble-minded Youth, Fort Wayne.
*Keely, Miss Sarah F., Superintendent, Reform School for Girls and Woman's Prison, Indianapolis.
Martindale, Charles, Vice-President, Board of Children's Guardians, Indianapolis.
Matthews, Gov. Claude, President, *ex officio*, Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
Nicholson, Timothy, Board of State Charities, Richmond.
Peelle, Mrs. Margaret F., Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
*Ream, Miss Laura, President, State Reform School for Girls and Woman's Prison, Indianapolis.
*Smallwood, W. C., General Secretary, Society for Organizing Charity, Terre Haute.
*Spink, Miss Mary A., M.D., Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
*Walker, Mrs. Claire A., Manager, Indiana Reform School for Girls and Woman's Prison, Indianapolis.
*Wiles, Thomas M., Board of State Charities, Greensburg.

Iowa.

*Hoover, Rev. George K., State Superintendent, Children's Home Society, Davenport.
Howard, Mrs. Nettie F., Agent, Associated Charities, Davenport.
*Miles, B. J., Superintendent, State Industrial School, Eldora.
*Millard, Mrs. F. A., Assistant Secretary, Charity Organization Society, Burlington.
*Patten, Mrs. J. P. Van, Secretary, Ladies' Industrial Relief Society, Davenport.
*Starr, Miss M. E., Secretary, Charity Organization Society, 420 North 4th Street, Burlington.

Kansas.

*Faulkner, Charles E., Superintendent, Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Atchison.
*†Hahn, Miss Tammie, Superintendent, Industrial School for Girls, Beloit.
*†Hinshaw, Nathan M., Secretary, State Board of Trustees of Charitable Institutions, Emporia.
*Householder, M. A., President, State Board of Trustees of Charitable Institutions, Columbus.
*Pack, Mrs. Emma D., Matron, Topeka Insane Asylum, Topeka.
Todd, W. G., Superintendent, State Institution for Education of Blind, Kansas City.
*Wait, W. S., Treasurer, State Board of Trustees of Charitable Institutions, Lincoln.

Kentucky.

*Barkhouse, Julius, Director, Charity Organization Society, Louisville.
*Caldwell, P., Superintendent, Industrial Schools of Reform, Louisville.
Finzer, Nick, Louisville.
*Stewart, John Q. A., M.D., Superintendent, Stewart Home, Frankfort.

Louisiana.

*Heymann, Michael, Superintendent, Jewish Orphans' Home, New Orleans.
*Magner, Joseph, Superintendent, Touro Infirmary, New Orleans.

Maine.

Hawes, Andrew, Stroudwater.
Holt, E. E., M.D., Executive and Senior Attending Surgeon, Maine Eye and Ear Infirmary, Portland.
Merrill, Mrs. Margaret T. W., 99 Winter Street, Portland.

Maryland.

*†Brackett, Jeffrey R., Manager, Charity Organization Society, 210 West Madison Street, Baltimore.
Brown, Miss Mary Willcox, Manager, Charity Organization Society, 110 West North Avenue, Baltimore.
*Brush, Edward N., M.D., Medical Superintendent, Sheppard Asylum, Towson.
*†Glenn, John, Manager, Charity Organization Society, 12 St. Paul Street, Baltimore.
*Glenn, John, Jr., Charity Organization Society, 12 St. Paul Street, Baltimore.
*Glenn, William L., Charity Organization Society, 12 St. Paul Street, Baltimore.
King, Miss Elizabeth T., President, Arundell Club, 840 Park Avenue, Baltimore.
Lawford, J. M., 718 North Howard Street, Baltimore.
Owens, Fred. R., Vice-President and Treasurer, Children's Fresh Air Society, Law Building, Baltimore.
*Shippen, Charles C., Charity Organization Society, Baltimore.
Steiner Bernard C., Librarian, Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore.
White, Francis, Baltimore.

Massachusetts.

*Barrows, Mrs. Isabel C., Editor of Conference, 141 Franklin Street, Boston.
*Birtwell, Charles W., General Secretary, Children's Aid Society, Charity Building, Boston.
Byrne, Rev. William, Spiritual Director, St. Vincent de Paul Society, 6 Allen Street, Boston.
Codman, Mrs. Henrietta G., Vice-Chairman, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Brookline.
Crafts, Miss M. E., Vice-President, Associated Charities, 304 Berkeley Street, Boston.
Crawford, Mrs. Sarah M., M.D., Medical Visitor, Department of Outdoor Poor, Roxbury.
Curran, Charles J., M.D., State Board of Lunacy and Charity, North Adams.
Donnelly, Charles F., State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Boston.
Fay, Miss Sarah B., New England Home for Little Wanderers, 88 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston.
Green, S. S., Librarian, Free Public Library, Worcester.
Hecht, Jacob H., Trustee for State Farm and State Alms House, 113 Commonwealth Avenue, Boston.
*†Hitchcock, Edward, M.D., State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Amherst.
Hodges, Richard M., M.D., State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Boston.
*†Johnson, George W., Chairman, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Brookfield.
Lincoln, Leontine, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Fall River.
Morse, Aaron R., Master, Union Truant School, Walpole.
Morse, Miss Frances R., Director, Associated Charities, 12 Marlborough Street, Boston.
Noyes, Charles L., President, Associated Charities, Somerville.
Overseers of the Poor, Charity Building, Chardon Street, Boston.
Page, D. L., M.D., Lowell.
Paine, Robert Treat, President, Associated Charities, 6 Joy Street, Boston.
Pratt, Laban, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Dorchester.
Pullman, Rev. James M., D.D., Chairman, Lynn Associated Charities, 25 Cherry Street, Lynn.
Putnam, Charles P., M.D., Vice-President, Associated Charities, 63 Marlborough Street, Boston.
Rice, William, Librarian, City Library Association, Springfield.
*†Richardson, Mrs. Anne B., State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Lowell.
Rogers, Miss Annette P., Overseer of Poor, 5 Joy Street, Boston.
Seavey, Mrs. Mary L., Associated Charities of Boston, Mattapoisett.
Stone, Henry, State Superintendent of Outdoor Poor, South Boston.
Wells, John D., Clerk and Auditor, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Boston.
Wigglesworth, George, Director, Associated Charities of Boston, 89 State Street, Boston.
Woodbury, Charles E., M.D., State Inspector of Institutions, Boston.
Worcester, Charles P., Trustee, State Primary and Reform Schools, Newtonville.
Wrightington, Stephen C., State Superintendent of Indoor Poor, Boston.

Michigan.

*†D'Arcambal, Mrs. Agnes L., Matron, Home of Industry for Discharged Prisoners, 259 Willis Avenue, Detroit.
*†Baldwin, Mrs. S., Detroit Industrial School, Detroit.
*†Barbour, Levi L., Board of Regents of State University, Detroit.
Bell, Samuel, M.D., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Detroit.
*†Bliss, Mrs. Aldaseba, President, Industrial School for Girls, Saginaw.
*†Bowling, Mrs. E. C., Vice-President, Home for Discharged Prisoners, Detroit.
*Cosper, Walter L., Assistant to Secretary, Charity Organization Society, Grand Rapids.
*†Dewing, Mrs. J. A., Corresponding Secretary, Children's Home, Kalamazoo.
*Field, Emma, General Secretary, Charity Organization Society, Grand Rapids.
Forrest, Herbert A., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Saginaw, E. S.
Gillespie, Rt. Rev. George D., D.D., LL.D., Chairman, State Board of Corrections and Charities, Grand Rapids.
*†Graves, Benjamin T., Commandant, Soldiers' Home.
Grossmann, Rabbi Louis, D.D., 63 Henry Street, Detroit.
Kellogg, J. H., M.D., President, Haskell Orphan Home, Battle Creek.
McVittie, Alexander, 149 Canfield Avenue, W., Detroit.
*Mars, Thomas, Chairman, Board of Control of State Public School, Berrien Centre.
Moore, William A., President, Association of Charities, 1055 Woodward Avenue, Detroit.
Neasmith, James M., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Vicksburg.
*Peirce, Frances E., Charity Organization Society, Grand Rapids.
*†Post, James A., M.D., Secretary, Association of Charities, Detroit.
Rich, Gov. John J., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Lansing.
*St. John, J. E., Superintendent, Industrial School for Boys, Lansing.
*Sayre, Ira T., Secretary, Board of Control of Industrial School, Flushing.
*Sickels, Mrs. Lucy M., Superintendent, State Industrial Home for Girls, Adrian.
*†Storrs, Lucius C., Secretary, State Board of Corrections and Charities, Lansing.
Wasey, George E., Detroit.
*Woodruff, A. N., Superintendent, State Public School, Coldwater.
*Woodruff, Mrs. A. N., State Public School, Coldwater.

Minnesota.

Amundson, C., State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Peter.
Brackett, G. A., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Minneapolis.
*Brown, J. W., Superintendent, State Reform School, Red Wing.
*Brown, Mrs. J. W., Matron, State Reform School, Red Wing.
*Costello, R. A., Manager, State Reform School, Duluth.
Cowie, C. G., Clerk, State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
*Dunn, Edwin, President, State Prison, Eyota.
Fitzgerald, John, Superintendent, St. Paul Workhouse, St. Paul.
*Hall, M. O., Manager, State Prison, Duluth.
*†Hart, Hastings H., Secretary, State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
Holt, George D., Secretary, Associated Charities, Minneapolis.

*Jackson, James F., Secretary, Associated Charities, St. Paul.
Knox, Miss Zillah, Clerk, State Board of Corrections and Charities. St. Paul.
Ludden, J. D., 641 Wabasha Street, St. Paul.
McGolrick, Rt. Rev. James, D.D., Duluth.
*McIntire, Jesse, Reform School, Red Wing.
*Maginnis, C. P., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Duluth.
*Merrill, G. A., Superintendent, State Public School, Owatonna.
*Mott, R. A., President, State Conference of Charities and Correction, Faribault.
Nelson, Gov. Knute, President *ex officio*, State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
Noyes, Daniel R., Treasurer, Society for Relief of the Poor, St. Paul.
Pettit, William, Director, Associated Charities, Minneapolis.
Rhoades, Miss Chloe A., 3719 Bryant Avenue, S., Minneapolis.
Rich, J. H., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Red Wing.
Riggs, C. Eugene, M.D., 595 Dayton Avenue, St. Paul.
*Rogers, A. C., M.D., Superintendent, State School for Feeble-minded, Faribault.
*Savage, Rev. E. P., State Superintendent, Children's Home Society, St. Paul.
Simmons, H. M., Pastor First Unitarian Church, 803 Mary Place, Minneapolis.
Smith, Rev. S. G., D.D., State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
Wakefield, J. B., State Board of Corrections and Charities, Blue Earth City.
Williams, Stephen B., Vice-President, Children's Aid Society of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

Mississippi.

Strauss, Isadore, Secretary, State Lunatic Asylum, Jackson.

Missouri.

*Drake, Lyman D., Superintendent, State Reform School for Boys, Boonville.
*†Finney, Rev. Thomas M., General Manager, St. Louis Provident Association, St. Louis.
*†Gilbert, Emma M., Superintendent, State Industrial Home for Girls, Chillicothe.
Hopkins, Rev. Henry, 916 Holmes Street, Kansas City.
Perry, Miss Mary E., 12 Van Deventer Place, St. Louis.
*†Slack, Mrs. I. R., Manager, State Industrial Home for Girls, Chillicothe.

Nebraska.

*Clark, A. W., Associated Charities, Omaha.
*†Hebard, J. P., General Secretary, Charity Organization Society, Lincoln.
*Laughland, John, Secretary, Associated Charities, Omaha.
*McCormick, Mrs. Annie, Charity Organization Society, Lincoln.
*Mallalieu, John T, Superintendent, State Industrial School, Kearney.

New Hampshire.

Blodgett, Mrs. Isaac N., New Hampshire Orphans' Home, Franklin.

New Jersey.

Dennis, L., M.D., President, Bureau of Associated Charities, 30 Central Avenue, Newark.
Garrison, S. Olin, Superintendent, New Jersey Training School for Feeble-minded Children, Vineland, Cumberland Co.
Meeker, S. J., Director, Bureau of Associated Charities, 95 Clay Street, Newark.
Otterson, Ira, Superintendent, State Reform School, Jamesburg.
Reeve, Richard H., Secretary and Treasurer, Cooper Hospital, 700 Cooper Street, Camden.

New York.

*Almy, Frederic, Secretary and Treasurer, Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.
*Blake, William, Superintendent, City Department of Public Charities and Corrections, 66 3d Avenue, New York.
Briggs, M. H., Manager, State Industrial School, Rochester.
Butler, Miss Rosalie, 31 East 69th Street, New York.
Davenport, Mrs. John, Local President, State Charities Aid Association, Bath, Steuben Co.
De Peyster, Mrs. Beekman, State Board of Charities, 465 West 23d Street, New York.
De Silver, Carll H., State Board of Charities, 43 Pierrepont Street, Brooklyn.
Dodge, D. Stuart, President, Christian Home for Intemperate Men, 225 Madison Avenue, New York.
Fanning, Jas. O., Assistant Secretary, State Board of Charities, Albany.
*Folks, Homer, Secretary, State Charities Aid Association, 105 East 22d Street, New York.
Foster, Edw. W., State Board of Charities, Potsdam.
*Gallup, S. N., State Custodial Asylum, Macedon.
Hancock, Theo. E., Attorney-General, State Board of Charities, *ex officio*, Albany.
Higginson, James J., Charity Organization Society, 16 East 41st Street, New York.
*Hoyt, Dr. Charles S., Secretary, State Board of Charities, Albany.
*Ireland, John E., President, Brunswick Home, Amityville.
*Ireland, Mrs. J. E., Amityville.
*Kellogg, Charles D., General Secretary, Charity Organization Society, 105 East 22d Street, New York.
Lathrop, James R., Superintendent, Roosevelt Hospital, 59th Street and 9th Avenue, New York.
Lawson, Mrs. Anna M., Superintendent, New York Cancer Hospital, 106th Street and 8th Avenue, New York.
*Letchworth, William Pryor, State Board of Charities, Buffalo.
Litchfield, Edw. H., State Board of Charities, 2 Montague Terrace, Brooklyn.
*Maxwell, Miss Anna C., Superintendent, Training School for Nurses, Presbyterian Hospital, 41 East 70th Street, New York.
McCarthy, Robert, State Board of Charities, Syracuse.
*Moore, Miss Marion I., Assistant Secretary, Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.
Munro, J. G., 513 Delaware Avenue, Buffalo.
Palmer, John, Secretary of State, State Board of Charities, *ex officio*, Albany.
Richardson, Charles A., Secretary, Ontario Orphan Asylum, Canandaigua.

Roberts, James A., Comptroller, State Board of Charities, Albany.
*Rosenau, Nathaniel S., Manager, United Hebrew Charities, 128 Second Avenue, New York.
Schuyler, Miss Louisa Lee, Manager, State Charities Aid Association, 135 East 21st Street, New York.
Sheehan, Wm. F., Lieutenant Governor, State Board of Charities, Albany.
Smith, T. Guilford, President, Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.
Smith, Stephen, M D., State Board of Charities, 574 Madison Avenue, New York.
Stewart, William R., President, State Board of Charities, 54 William Street, New York.
Stoddard, E. V., State Board of Charities, Rochester.
Van Antwerp, John H., Vice-President, State Board of Charities, Albany.
Walrath, Peter, State Board of Charities, Chittenango.
White, Alfred T., Director, Bureau of Charities, 40 Remsen Street, Brooklyn.

Ohio.

*Ayres, Philip W., General Secretary Associated Charities, Cincinnati.
*Barrett, David M., Superintendent, Boys' Industrial School, Lancaster.
Breed, William J., President. Associated Charities, Cincinnati.
*Brinkerhoff, Gen. Roeliff, Chairman, Board of State Charities, Mansfield.
*Byers, Joseph P., Secretary, Board of State Charities, Columbus.
*Crouse, Meigs V., Superintendent, Children's Home, Cincinnati.
Follett, M. D., Board of State Charities, Marietta.
*Fulton, Levi S., Superintendent, Cincinnati House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
Hammond, George F., 166 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland.
*Hathaway, S. J., President, State Conference of Charities and Correction, Marietta.
Herrmann, Aug., President, City Infirmary, Cincinnati.
*Hough, W. S., M.D., Trustee, Cleveland State Hospital, Cuyahoga Falls.
McKinley, Gov. William, *ex officio*, Board of State Charities, Columbus.
*Neff, William Howard, Board of State Charities, Cincinnati.
*Parrott, Charles, Board of State Charities, Columbus.
Ranney, Henry C., Board of State Charities, Cleveland.
Raymond, Henry N., Superintendent, Bethel Associated Charities, 309 Spring Street, Cleveland.
*Roberts, D. E., Elder Brother, Boys' Industrial School, Lancaster.
*Varian, Truman W., Instructor and Editor, Boys' Industrial School, Lancaster.
*Waterton, Mrs. R. T., Visitor, Geauga County Infirmary and Jail, South Newbury.
Wilson, James L., M.D., Board of State Charities, Greenfield.

Pennsylvania.

Baily, Joshua L., President, Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, 15 Bank Street, Philadelphia.
Boies, H. M., State Board of Public Charities, Scranton.
Burnham, Mrs. George, Jr., Children's Aid Society, 214 North 34th Street, Philadelphia.
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*Pemberton, Caroline H., Acting Superintendent, Children's Aid Society, Philadelphia.
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*Walk, James W., M.D., General Secretary, Society for Organizing Charity; Director, City Department of Charities and Correction, Philadelphia.
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State Board of Charities and Reform.

Otto Gramm, President .....
Charles W. Burdick .....
Stephen T. Farwell, Secretary ..... Cheyenne

STATE CONFERENCES.

At the request of the Executive Committee the editor has tried to collect programmes of the various State conferences held during the year. Few States have yet adopted this system; but the programmes, so far as secured, include the following papers: —

COLORADO.

Programme of the State Conference of Charities and Corrections, March 21, 22, and 23, 1894, Unity Church, 19th and Broadway, Denver, Colorado.

Introductory, Hon. J. S. APPEL, *President, Board of Pardons.*

Welcome, WM. F. SLOCUM, Jr., *President of State Board of Charities and Corrections.*

Response, Chancellor MCDOWELL.

Address, "How shall we care for the Dependent and Delinquent?" Hon. PLATT ROGERS.

Address, "The Opportunity of Women in the Management of our Institutions," Dr. M. C. T. LOVE, *Vice-President, State Board of Pardons.*

"Practical Suggestions," President J. H. BAKER, *of the University of Colorado.*

Paper, "The Spiritual Basis and Value of Charitable and Correctional Work," by Rev. W. F. SELLECK.

STATE INSTITUTIONS.

Paper, "The Parole Law and Indeterminate Sentence as a Deterrent for Criminals," Hon. F. A. RAYNOLDS, *Commissioner of the State Penitentiary.*

Paper, "Boards of County Visitors: How they can be made Useful," Mrs. C. S. BENJAMIN, *Member, Board of County Visitors,* Arapahoe County.

Reports (limited to ten minutes) from Warden MCLISTER, State Penitentiary; Warden BERRY, State Reformatory; Superintendent THOMBS, Insane Asylum; Superintendent TUDOR, Industrial School; Superintendent RAY, Deaf and Blind School; Commander COATES, Soldiers' and Sailors' Home.

CARE AND TREATMENT OF THE INSANE AND FEEBLE-MINDED.

Paper, "The Necessity of a State School for the Feeble-minded," Dr. J. T. ESKRIDGE.

Paper, "A Model Hospital for the Cure of Mental Diseases," Dr. P. R. Thombs, *Superintendent of State Insane Asylum.*

Paper, "The Legal Commitment and Detention of the Insane," Judge O. E. LEFEVRE.

THE CARE, CUSTODY, AND TRAINING OF DEPENDENT AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

Paper, "Childhood," Dr. HENRY SEWALL, *Secretary, State Board of Health.*

Paper, "The Rescue and Care of the Friendless," Hon. CHARLES D. HAYT, *Chief Justice of Colorado.*

Paper, "A State School for Dependent Children," Senator E. W. MERRITT.

Paper, "How to help our Girls," Mrs. J. R. HANNA, *Secretary, Board of Control State Industrial School for Girls.*

Address, "An Exposition of the Sloyd System of Manual Training," Professor C. T. WORK, *of the State Normal School.*

THE PREVENTION OF PAUPERISM AND CRIME.

Paper, "The Liquor Traffic and its Relation to Crime," Mr. JOHN HIPP.

Paper, "Crime Sociologically Considered," Mr. J. H. PERSHING.

Paper, "Private Outdoor Relief,—its Effects and Expectations," Rev. THOMAS H. MALONE.

Paper, "Charity Organization,—its Duties and Obligations," Mrs. IZETTA GEORGE.

Reports from Boards of County Visitors and Officers of County Institutions.

THE KINDERGARTEN.

Meeting under the Auspices of Denver Free Kindergarten Association, Hon. FRED DICK, *Chairman.*

Paper, "Educational Economics," Mr. P. W. SEARCH, *Superintendent, Pueblo Public Schools.*

Paper, "Kindergarten and Connecting Work," Z. X. SNYDER, Ph.D., *President State Normal School,* Greeley.

Paper, "The Pardoning Power," J. WARNER MILLS, *Vice-President, State Board of Charities and Corrections.*

Paper, "Capital Punishment," Senator DAVID BOYD.

Paper, "The Non-partisan Management of Public Charities and Reformatory Institutions," By WILLIAM F. SLOCUM, Jr., *President, State Board of Charities and Corrections.*

Address, Dr. B. A. WHEELER, *Member, State Board of Charities and Corrections.*

Paper, "How Should Public Institutions be governed?" Senator J. A. ISRAEL.

Closing Remarks, "A Conference for Public Good," LOUIS R. EHRICH.

INDIANA.

Programme of the Third Indiana State Conference of Charities and Correction, held at Terre Haute, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, Feb. 20, 21, and 22, 1894, in the Central Presbyterian Church.

President, SYDNEY B. DAVIS.

Secretary, W. C. SMALLWOOD.

Executive Committee, SYDNEY B. DAVIS, Professor JOHN R. COMMONS, W C. SMALLWOOD, LYMAN P. ALDEN, ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

THE STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.— The last State Conference secured some very important legislation relating to child-saving work. The law establishing the Board of Children's Guardians was so amended that its benefits were extended to all counties having a population exceeding fifty thousand inhabitants. Also an important law drafted by the Conference Committee on Legislation was enacted, regulating the reception of children into institutions, and the adopting, indenturing, controlling, and dismissing of the same, which will greatly facilitate the work.

President's Address, SYDNEY B. DAVIS, *President of the Society for Organizing Charity*, Terre Haute.

COMMITTEE ON CHILD-SAVING. *Chairman*, LYMAN P. ALDEN, *Superintendent Rose Orphans' Home*, Terre Haute.

"General Report on Child-saving Work," L. P. ALDEN.

"The Placing out of Children," Mrs. J. A. KETTRING, Children's Aid Society, South Bend.

"Institutional Work for Dependent Children," Mrs. D. BEATTY, *President, Children's Aid Society*, South Bend.

"Experience of the Indianapolis Board of Children's Guardians," Rev. N. A. HYDE, D.D.

COMMITTEE ON CHARITY ORGANIZATION. *Chairman*, W C. SMALLWOOD, *Secretary Society for Organizing Charity*, Terre Haute.

"What is Charity," W. C. SMALLWOOD.

"What is the Problem of the Poor in Cities?" P. W. AYRES, Ph.D., *Secretary, Associated Charities*, Cincinnati.

Organized Charity as a Promoter of Charitable Enterprises, ALEX. JOHNSON, *Superintendent, School for Feeble-minded*, Fort Wayne.

COMMITTEE ON REFORMATORY WORK, PRISONS, AND JAILS. *Chairman*, T. J. CHARLTON, *Superintendent, Reform School for Boys*, Plainfield.

"Manual Training in Public Schools," T. J. CHARLTON.

"Reformatory Work and Practical Results," Miss SARAH F. KEELEY, *Superintendent, Reform School for Girls' and Women's Prison*, Indianapolis.

"Experience in Jail Visiting," Mrs. ANNA PALMATEER, *Jail Visitor, W. C. T. U.*, Terre Haute.

"From a Trustee's Standpoint," Miss LAURA REAM, *of Board of Managers, Reform School for Girls' and Women's Prison.*

COMMITTEE ON POOR ASYLUMS. *Chairman*, J. C. HARVEY, Wayne County.

"Poor Asylum Discipline," J. C. HARVEY.

"The Relation of Outside Authorities to the Poor Asylum," W. H. MCCULLOUGH, Clay County.

Committee, DAVID GOTTSCHALK, WILLIAM COLLISTER, NATHAN BUNCH, WORTH TEMPLETON.

COMMITTEE ON TOWNSHIP TRUSTEES' WORK. *Chairman*, S. N. GOLD, Indianapolis.

"Travelling Mendicants," S. N. GOLD, *Township Trustee*, Indianapolis.

"Outdoor Relief," JAMES E. CASKEY, Greensburg.

"Indoor Relief," R. A. BROWN, Franklin.

COMMITTEE ON INTEMPERANCE IN RELATION TO CRIME AND PAUPERISM. *Chairman*, JOHN R. COMMONS, *Professor of Economics and Social Science*, Indiana University, Bloomington.

"Report of Committee on Intemperance," JOHN R. COMMONS.

"Public Control of the Liquor Traffic in Norway," Rev. F. W. DEWHURST, Indianapolis.

"The Cure of Inebriety," JOHN W. KERN, Indianapolis.

MICHIGAN.

Papers read at the Proceedings of the Twentieth Annual Convention of the Superintendents of the Poor and Union Association, held at Detroit, Jan. 17 and 18, 1894.

Opening Addresses.

"Employment of Indoor Poor," by Mrs. AGNES L. D'ARCAMBAL, *Home of Industry for Discharged Prisoners.*

"Employment for Outdoor Poor," by Dr. J. A. POST, *Secretary, Detroit Association of Charities.*

"Our Poor Laws: What Improvement can be made in them?" by Hon. MICHAEL BRENNAN.

"Management of County Farms: How can they be made Most Beneficial and Profitable?" by CHARLES HOLMAN.

Address, by Mr. J. F. VAN DE VANTER, of Washington.

"Medical and Surgical Treatment of the Indigent Sick," by SAMUEL BELL, M.D.

"How to deal with Tramps," by Mrs. A. L. D'ARCAMBAL.

Papers read at the Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual Conference of the Association of County Agents and Convention of the Board of Corrections and Charities, held at Muskegon, Dec. 5 and 6, 1893.

President, WILLIAM CARPENTER.

Secretary, L. C. STORRS.

PROCEEDINGS OF CONFERENCE OF COUNTY AGENTS.

"Discipline in Reformatories," by J. E. ST. JOHN, *Superintendent, Industrial School*, Lansing.

"Trial System of Juvenile Offenders," by Dr. J. H WELLINGS, *Agent*, Ingham County.

"Provisions for and Limitations of Placing out Children," by JOHN W. HOLCOMB, Agent, Kent County.

"Remedies for Certain Crimes," by HAL. C. WYMAN, M.D., Detroit.

"Legislation of 1893, touching our State, Penal, Reformatory, and Charitable Institutions," by L. C. STORRS, *Secretary*.

Report of State Prison.

Report of State House of Correction and Reformatory.

Report of Industrial Home for Girls.

Report of Industrial School for Boys.

Report of State Public School.

Report of School for the Blind.

Report of School for the Deaf.

Report of Industrial Home for Discharged Prisoners.

PROCEEDINGS OF CONVENTION OF THE BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

Address of Welcome, by Mr. WILLIAM CARPENTER, *President of the Convention.*

Response, by SAMUEL BELL, M.D.

Address of the Governor, Hon. JOHN T. RICH.

"Sentencing Criminals, and their Treatment in Prison," by Justice CLAUDIUS B. GRANT.

"What we propose to do in and what we expect from our Home for the Feeble-minded and Epileptic," by Hon. LOREN A. SHERMAN.

"The Relation of County Agents to the Administration of the Criminal Law," by Hon. ROLLIN H. PIERSON.

MINNESOTA.

Table of Contents of the Proceedings of the Second State Conference of Charities and Correction, held in Minneapolis, Jan. 10, 11, and 12, 1894.

President, GEORGE A. BRACKETT.

Secretaries: H. L. MOORE and G. G. COWIE.

OPENING ADDRESSES.

Address of Welcome, by Mayor WILLIAM H. EUSTIS.

Response, by Governor KNUTE NELSON.

Response, by ex-Governor WILLIAM R. MARSHALL.

President's Address, by GEORGE A. BRACKETT.

CITY CHARITIES.

"How to help the Unemployed," by Rev. L. G. POWERS.

"Assistance by Loans *v.* Chattel Mortgage Loans," by JOHN BLANCHARD.

"Friendly Visiting the True Charity," by Mrs. A. K. NORTON.

"Friendly Visiting *v.* District Missionary Visiting," by Mrs. J. H. ARNELL.

PUBLIC CARE OF THE POOR.

Report of the Committee, by T. C. CLARK, M.D., *Chairman.*

"How to help the Poor without Pauperizing them," by Rev. J. H. ALBERT.

"Duties of County Commissioners Caring for the Poor," by C. F. STAPLES.

"County Physicians and Care of the Sick Poor," by H. L. MCKINSTRY, M.D.

"The Town System of Caring for the Poor," by FRANK A. DAVIS.

"Investigation of Applications for Relief," by Miss EMILY J. GRAY.

"Non-resident Paupers,— How shall they be Disposed of?" by C. L. SNYDER.

DEPENDENT CHILDREN.

"The Child and the State," by Rev. H. P. NICHOLS.

"Legal Aspect of the Child Question,—Separation of Children from Parents," by C. P. MAGINNIS.

"Free Kindergarten *v.* the Reform School," by Mrs. D. L. KIEHLE.

REFORMATORIES.

"Minneapolis Reformatories, what we have, and what we lack," by Mrs. T. B. WALKER.

"Juvenile Crime, its Origin and Preventives," by Rt. Rev. JAMES MCGOLRICK.

"Religious Instruction in Reformatories," by Professor A. H. PEARSON.

"Reform School Industries," by Superintendent J. W. BROWN.

PRISONS, WORKHOUSES, JAILS, AND LOCKUPS.

Introduction to the Papers, by Hon. JOHN W. WILLIS.

"State Prisons and Reformatories," by ALBERT GARVIN.

"City Workhouses," by Superintendent JOHN FITZGERALD.

"Management of County Jails," by Sheriff PAUL SHARVY.

THE INSANE AND FEEBLE-MINDED.

"Relation of the Public to Hospitals for Insane and their Inmates," by H. A. TOMLINSON, M.D.

"Modern Hospital Ideas in the Treatment of the Insane," by SARAH LINTON PHELPS, M.D.

"Causation of Idiocy and Feeble-mindedness," by W. F. WILSON, M.D.

COMMITTEES.

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Prisons, Workhouses, Jails, and Lockups, Hon. JOHN W. WILLIS, ALBERT GARVIN, JOHN FITZGERALD, BERNARD CLOUTIER, MATT GROSS, EDWIN DUNN, H. M. RICHARDSON, JOHN MAHOWALD, PAUL SHARVY, H. M. GRUNDYSEN.

Insane and Feeble-minded, H. A. TOMLINSON, M.D., A. P. WILLIAMSON, M.D., J. A. STEELE, SARAH LINTON PHELPS, M.D., Hon. R. A. MOTT, F. J. MCCOMB, M.D., C. E. RIGGS, M.D., W. F. WILSON, M.D.

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ORGANIZATION OF THE CONFERENCE OF 1895.

President, Hon. R. A. MOTT, Faribault.

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NEW ENGLAND.

Titles of Papers presented at the Third New England Conference of Charities, Correction, and Philanthropy, Newport, R.I., Oct. 10, 11, 12, and 13, 1894.

President, Colonel JOHN HARE POWELL, Newport, R. I.

Vice-President, THOMAS F. RING, Boston, Mass.

Secretaries: ELI WHITNEY BLAKE, Jr., 128 North Main Street, Providence; Mrs. LILIAN C. STREETER, Concord, N.H.; Miss HARRIET A. LEAVITT, Portland, Me.; H. C. WHITTLESEY, Middletown, Conn.

Opening of the Conference by the President, Colonel JOHN HARE POWELL.

Address of Welcome, by Hon. DANIEL R. FEARING, *Mayor of Newport.*

Address, "A Fatality of the Social Problem," by JOHN GRAHAM BROOKS, of Cambridge, Mass.

"Charity Organization," by Rev. J. M. PULLMAN, D.D., *Chairman of the Associated Charities of Lynn*, Mass.

"Prisons," by JOSEPH G. THORP, Jr., *President of the Massachusetts Prison Association*, Cambridge, Mass.

"Public Relief and Almshouses," *Chairman* JAMES H. LEWIS, *Agent of the Overseers of the Poor*, Springfield, Mass.

"Outdoor Relief," by MATTHEW J. CUMMINGS, *Overseer of the Poor*, Providence, R.I.

"Charity Organization in its Bearings upon Social Regeneration," by the *Chairman*, Professor J. J. MCCOOK, of Trinity College, Hartford.

"Charity Organization a Necessity of Modern Conditions," by FREDERICK J. KINGSBURY, of Waterbury, Conn., *President of the American Social Science Association.*

CHARITY ORGANIZATION IN PUBLIC EMERGENCIES.

"The Lynn Fire," by Miss HANNAH M. TODD, of Boston, Mass., formerly of the Associated Charities, Lynn, Mass.

"The Providence Unemployed," by ELI W. BLAKE, Jr., *General Manager of the Providence Society for Organizing Charity.*

"Maintaining High Ideals in Hard Times," by Miss ZILPHA D. SMITH, *General Secretary of the Associated Charities*, Boston, Mass.

"Charity Organization as a Teacher of Ways to Self-help," by Hon. ROBERT TREAT PAINE, of Boston, Mass.

"Beginnings of Charity Organization in America," Rev. S. H. GURTEEN, formerly of Buffalo, N.Y.

"What the State and Society owe to All Children," *Chairman*, Rev. ANNA GARLIN SPENCER, of Providence.

"The Care of Dependent and Neglected Children," (*a*) FRANCIS SEDGWICK CHILD, Cambridge, Mass.; (*b*) Mrs. GLENDOWER EVANS, Boston, Mass., *Trustee of the State Primary and Reform Schools of Massachusetts.*

Address by CHARLES W. BIRTWELL, *General Secretary of the Boston Children's Aid Society.*

"Financial Aid for Hospitals," by Dr. HARMON G. HOWE, *Visiting Physician to the Hartford Hospital.*

"Medical Aid to the Worthy and to the Unworthy," by Dr. HENRY FLEISCHNER, *Attending Physician at the New Haven Hospital and at the New Haven Dispensary.*

Treasurer, JAMES H. LEWIS, Springfield, Mass.

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NEW YORK.

Papers presented at the Twenty-fourth Annual Convention of County Superintendents of the Poor of the State of New York, held at Binghamton, June 19, 20, and 21, 1894.

President, R. W. BARROWS.

Secretary, J. W. IVES, Wyoming.

Opening Remarks by Hon. CHARLES E. FULLER, *Chairman of the Board of Supervisors of Broome County.*

Address of Welcome, by Hon. GEORGE E. GREEN, *Mayor of the City.*

Response, by President R. W. BARROWS; President's address.

Paper, "The Influence of the Stringency of the Times on the Question of Pauperism," by J. R. WASHBURN, of Jefferson.

Paper, "The Necessity for a Change of Methods in Charity Work," by Dr. H. C. TAYLOR, of Chautauqua.

Paper, "The Boarding-out System pending a Search for Permanent Homes for Dependent Children, and its Advantages over Asylum Care; and the Placing-out of Mothers with their Babes, especially Young Mothers; followed by a Few Facts about the Placing-out of Dependent Children, and the Necessity of Continued Supervision, by a Prominent Charity Worker," by Mrs. ANNA T. WILSON, of New York.

Paper, "Organization of Charitable Work in Rural Counties," by N. S. ROSENAU, of New York.

Paper, "The Duties of Superintendents of the Poor having in View a Positive, not Relative, Reduction of Pauperism," by JAMES S. LYKE, of Tompkins.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Papers read at the Proceedings of the Nineteenth Annual Session of the Association of Directors of the Poor of the State of Pennsylvania, held at Williamsport, Pa., Oct. 17, 18, and 19, 1893.

President, E. P. GOULD.

Opening Addresses.

"State Asylum for Chronic Insane," etc., by Dr. W. H. WETHERILL, Philadelphia.

"Separate Asylums for Epileptics," by Dr. Z. C. MYERS, York.

"Poor Law Revision," by Mr. W. F. SHEPHERD, Pottsville.

"On Work of the Association," by ROBERT D. MCGONNIGLE.

"Reformatory Work," by Mrs. H. LEE MASON.

"Past, Present and Future of our Charitable Institutions," by Dr. JAMES W. WALK, Philadelphia.

Discussion of Site for New School for Feeble-minded Children.

PAPERS.

By Mr. OTTO G. KAUPP.

By Mrs. J. L. ANDERSON.

By Mrs. L. P. WILSON, Altoona.

By Miss C. H. PEMBERTON, Philadelphia, on "Work on Children's Aid Societies for the Past Year."

By Miss JANE T. BERNARD, on "The Proper Education of Children's Aid Society Children."

By Dr. W. C. YOUNGMAN, Williamsport, "Is Pauperism a Crime"?

REPORTS OF COUNTY COMMITTEES.

REPORT OF CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETIES.

WISCONSIN.

Papers read at the Proceedings of the Annual State Conference of Charities and Corrections, held at Madison, Feb. 28 to March 3, 1893.

Opening Addresses.

CARE OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

"The Desirability, Practicability, Character, and Cost of a State Institution for the Care and Training of the Feeble-minded," by ELIZABETH WHITEHEAD.

"Report of the Committee on the Custody and Training of the Feeble-minded," by ALBERT SALISBURY.

"Adjuncts to Medical Treatment in Hospitals for Insane," by M. J. WHITE.

DIPSOMANIA.

"The Duty and Possibilities of State Care and Treatment of Dipsomaniacs, from the Standpoint of a Physician," by GILBERT HATHAWAY.

"Same, from the Standpoint of a Layman," by C. S. CLARK.

ANNUAL ADDRESS.

"The Social Aspects of Pauperism and Crime," by W. A. SCOTT.

"Tramps and their Treatment." Discussion.

"The Care and Maintenance of Dependent Children," by PETER DOYLE.

"Heredity in its Relation to Crime." Discussion.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND BLIND.

"Report of Milwaukee Day School for the Deaf," by PAUL BINNER.

History of St. John's Institute for the Deaf.

"The Wisconsin System of Public Day Schools for Deaf-mutes," by ROBERT C. SPENCER.

"Wisconsin School for the Deaf," by J. W. SWILER.

"Wisconsin School for the Blind," by L. S. PEASE.

"Report of Committee on the Commitment, Detention, and Care of the Insane," by E. P. TAYLOR.

"Are our Industrial Schools for Boys and Girls Reformatory? If not, why not and how may they become more so?" by J. J. BLAISDELL.

"Report of Committee on Reformatories and Penitentaries," by J. J. BLAISDELL. Discussion.

"Homes for Working Girls," by JESSIE A. SCHLEY. Discussion.

"Report of Committee on Woman's Part in Philanthropy," by MARY L. MALKOFF.

"Boys' Clubs," by ANNABEL C. WHITCOMB.

INDEX OF WRITERS AND SPEAKERS.

Alden, Lyman P., 348, 350, 354.
Almy, Frederic, 301.
Appel, J. J., 287.
Ayres, P. W., 20.

Barbour, Levi L., 9, 292.
Barrows, Isabel C., 179.
Bicknell, E. P., 351
Birtwell, C. W., 285, 349, 350, 352, 353.
Blain, Randolph H., 421.
Brackett, J. R., 306, 308.
Brennan, Agnes S., 94.
Brent, Edith S., 97.
Brinkerhoff, R., 15, 284, 288, 295, 296, 330, 331.
Brush, Edward N., 201, 293, 296, 319.
Byers, Joseph P., 226.

Caldwell, R. R., 118, 288, 345.
Charlton, T. J., 344.
Clark, A. W., 331.
Crouse, M. V., 348, 352.
Crozier, A. O., 304.

D'Arcambal, Mrs. Agnes, 326.
Denny, Collins, 214.

Elder, John, 280, 281, 304.
Elmore, A. E., 285.

Faulkner, C. E., 285, 292, 331, 348.
Fite, Adjutant-General, 274.
Fitzgerald, Bishop O. P., 330.
Folks, Homer, 119, 347, 348.
Fowler, William P., 45.
Fulcomer, Daniel, 67.

George, Izetta, 55.
Glenn, John M., 356.
Graves, B. F., 291.
Gregg, Rev. F. M., 351.
Guild, G. B., 275.

Hart, H. H., 309.
Hathaway, S. J., 348, 354.
Henderson, C. R., 118.
Heymann, Michael, 280, 306, 349.
Hitchcock, Dr. Edward, 284.
Howey, Laura E., 248.
Hoyt, Dr. C. S., 354.

Jackson, James F., 20, 30.
Jackson, Sheldon, 232.
John, Sam Will, 232.
Johnson, Alexander, 286, 292, 308, 333, 343.
Johnson, George W., 286.

Kelley, D. C., 305.
Kellogg, Charles D., 20, 21, 303.
Kelso, J. J., 351, 353, 354.
Knight, Dr. George H., 296, 310, 312.

Lathrop, Miss Julia C., 296, 305, 313, 320, 340.
Letchworth, William P., 132, 188, 292, 295, 344.
Lewis, Herbert W., 140, 351.
Lindley, Dr. Walter, 149, 288, 289, 290, 292.

Mallalieu, John T., 156.
Mars, Thomas, 350, 354.
Merrill, G. A., 146, 349, 351, 352, 354.
McGonnigle, R. D., 36, 118.
Mott, Alice J., 168, 293.

Neff, W. H., 276, 279.

Parrot, Charles, 118.
Pemberton, C. H., 137, 353.

Raymond, Henry M., 50.
Rhett, Mrs. M. A., 34.
Richards, Linda, 100.
Richardson, Mrs. Anne B., 282, 283, 286, 351.
Rosenau, N. S., 284, 285, 303, 333.
Rosengarten, Joseph G., 58.

Sanborn, F. B., 350.
Savage, Rev. E. P., 351, 352.
Sickels, Lucy M., 164
Simon, S., 118.
Slocum, W. F., 287.
Smith, Marion E., 102.
Snyder, Clarence, 285.
Stewart, J. Q. A., 310.
Storrs, Lucius C., 1, 284, 343.

Thornley, J. P., 331.

Walk, Dr. James W., 19, 63, 298, 301, 320.
Walker, Mrs. C. A., 281.
Waterton, R. T., 281.
Wheless, Mrs. M. E. T. M., 330.
Wickens, Mrs. M. R., 342.
Wilkins, F. D., 281, 297.
Willcox, Walter F., 86.
Wines, F. H., 291, 294, 307, 320, 324.
Woodruff, A. N., 349, 353.
Wright, A. O., 345.

Yundt, Rev. T. M., 349.

INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

Accidental criminals, 5.
Adequate relief, 299.
Addresses: of President, 1; of W. H. Neff, 276; of General Fite, 274; of Mayor Guild, 275; on organized charity, 298, 301; on Hull House, 313; on lessons of eleventh census concerning children in almshouses, 324; on home for discharged prisoners, 326; on day nurseries, 333; on district nurses, 340.
Alabama, report from, 229.
Alabama State institutions, 259.
Alaska, laws needed for, 233.
Alaska, report from, 232.
Alexander, William, 192.
Allegheny R.R. Co., 39.
Alleys, cleaning of, 59.
"Almshouses in New York, Removal of Children from," 132.
Almshouses in the South, 324.
"Almshouses, Removal of Children from," 119.
Alt-Scherbitz Asylum, 293.
Amendment to Rule II., 278.
American Social Science Association, 69.
Arizona public institutions, 259.
Arkansas State institutions, 259.
Associated Charities of Charleston, S.C., 34.
Associated Charities of St. Paul, 30, 247.
Ayres, P. W., 115.

Badges, 307.
Baltimore & Ohio R.R. Co., 39.
Barrow, Isaac, 224.
Barton, Clara, 28.
Battelle, Fanny, 345.
"Bear ye one Another's Burdens" (sermon), 214.
Bellamy, Edward, 176.
"Bethel Associated Charities," Cleveland, 50.
Bethel Friendly Inn and Wood-yard, 33.
Benevolent institutions, by States, 259.
Bielefeld colony, 191.
Billings, J. S., 186.
Bishop, Nathan, 346.
Blind children in Utah, 255.
Boarding system, 130.
"Boarding System for Neglected Children," 137.
Board of Control of St. Paul, 30.
Board of Health, Cleveland, 51.
Board of Pardons, 5.
Board of Public Lands and Buildings, 249.
Boards of Control, 15.
"Boards of State Charities as Boards of Control," 15.
Bodelschwingh, Pastor von, 191.
Böhmert, Victor, 111.
Bost, John, 191.
"Boston, Emergency Work in," 45.
Boys in electric works, 289.
Bryn Mawr, 68.
Bucknill, J. C., 206.
Buffalo Charity Organization Society, 301.
Bureau of Education, 68.

California Home for Feeble-minded, 195.
California institutions, 259.
California, number and cost of dependent children, 148.
California, report from, 233.
"Camp Relief," Denver, 55.
Carnegie, Andrew, 38, 111.
Chair-seating in jails, 237.
Charities and correction, statistics of, 80.
Charities, instruction in, 76.
Charities, relation to sociology, 73.
Charity organization, 19; its value in New York in winter of 1893, 21; in St. Paul, 30; in Charleston, 34; society, Philadelphia, 58.
Charity organization, discussion on, 301.
Charleston, work in, 34.
Charter House School, 224.
Cherokee nation, 239.
Children, boarding system for, 137.
"Children in Almshouses," 119.
"Children of the State," 128.
"Children, on what Terms placed in Families," 140.
Children's Home Society, Denver, 57.
Child-saving Work, 348.
Choice of homes for children, 141.
Christian Aid Association, 40.
Christian Herald Fund, 26.
Christian, Jules, 188.
Christ, law of, 214.
Churches of Denver, co-operation of, 57.
Church relief agencies, 24.
Citizens' Relief Committee, Boston, 45.
Citizens' Relief Committee, Cleveland, 54.
City appropriations for poor, 25.
Clark, A. W., 115.
Classification of prisoners in Michigan, 246.
Cleveland Associated Charities, 50.
Clothing and bed-covering, calls for, 50.
Coal orders, 43.
Coit, Stanton, 23.
College settlements, 320.
Colleges, list of, 80.
Colleges teaching sociology, 68.
"Colony of Mercy, A," 192.
Colony plan for epileptics and feeble-minded, 312.
Colony system for epileptics, 200.
Colorado institutions, 260.
Colorado, report from, 235.
Columbia College, 68.
Committee, report of, on reports from States, 226.
Committees: on business and resolutions, 277; on time and place, 277; on organization, 277, on badge, 297; on memorials, 297
Committee, report of, on time and place, 304.
Committee on badges, report from, 307.
Commons, J. R., 118
Compensation for State Board members, 17.
Comte, Auguste, 87.
Conference Sermon, 214.
Connecticut institutions, 260.

Connecticut, report from, 236.
Contract system in Nebraska, 249.
Convict camps, 325.
Convict system, 230.
Convicts worked on public roads, 257.
Co-operation, charity organization societies, 299.
Co-operation of newspapers, 49.
Coosa River, Alabama, 231.
Cornell University, 68.
Charity organization societies, number of, 300.
Cottage system for insane, 293.
County poorhouses, 121.
County prison employments, 253.
County systems for children, 128.
County visitors, 252, 282.
Courier Relief Supply, 302.
Craig colony for epileptics, 198.
Craig, Oscar, 343.
Crèches, 335.
Criminal insane, 295.
Cripple Creek, 56.
Cumberland University, 69.

Darby, Dr. F. H., 253.
Day nurseries, 333.
Deaconesses' homes, 57.
Delaware, report from, 237.
Denver, Children's Home Society, 57.
Denver Flower Mission, 56.
"Denver's Plan," 55.
De Pauw University, 75.
Dependent children, methods of caring for, 125.
Deserted wives, 352.
Dewey, Richard, 17.
Dietaries, 318.
Dipsomania, 243.
Dipsomaniac law, 307.
Discharged prisoners, 328.
Discharged prisoners, home for, 326.
Discussions: on charity organization, 301; on feeble-minded, 308; on juvenile reformatories, 288; on insanity, 292; on State Boards, 278.
District nurses, 340.
"District Nursing," 97.
District nursing associations, 97.
District of Columbia, report from, 238.
Dollar Relief Society, 302.
Dressing stone, convicts, 254.
"Duty of State to Insane," 201.
Dwight, Theodore, 346.

East Side Relief Work Committee, 25, 27.
Economics, teachers of, 74.
Educational institutions, list of, 80.
Educational training in reformatories, 159.
Elmira College, 75.
Elmira Reformatory, 332.
Elmira Reformatory, feeble-minded in, 176.
Emergency funds, 24.
"Emergency Work in Boston," 45.
Employment office, Utah, 256.
English Lunacy Commission, 205.
English lunacy law, 205.
Epileptic asylum in Ohio, 193.
Epileptic children at Elwyn, 195.
Epileptic colony for Maryland, 196.
Epileptic colony in New York, 198.
Epileptic department for Minnesota, 196.
Epileptic home in Surrey, 192.
Epileptics, home for, in Germany, 190.
Epileptics, hospital for, in Philadelphia, 195.
"Epileptics, Provision for," 188.
Epileptics, provision for, in Michigan, 245.
Ethical Culture Society, 58.
Ethics, teaching of, 70.
European universities, 69.
Evening Post, 26.
Ex-convicts, treatment of, 331.

Exhibit of imbeciles' handiwork, 305.
Experienced volunteer visitors, 48.
"Experiment in Utilizing Unemployed Labor," 58.

Farmhurst, State hospital of, 238.
Feeble-minded and epileptics, 168.
Feeble-minded as attendants, 312.
Feeble-minded children in almshouses, 122.
Feeble-minded, manual training for, 179.
Female physicians in asylums, 250.
Financial difficulties and hardships of poor, 21.
Finley, John H., 67, 72.
Fisk University, 287.
Fitch Crèche, 336.
Florida institutions, 260.
Fort Wayne School for Feeble-minded, 309.
Free soup-houses, 42.
Friendly visiting, 300.

Gallipolis Asylum for Epileptics, 193.
Gavel, presentation of, 277.
"General Culture in State Schools," 149.
Georgia institutions, 261.
German statistics on public relief, 111.
Gertrude of Bonnal, 166.
Government grants to orphanages, 233.
Graduate school of Chicago, 78.
Greer, Rev. D. H., 304.
Guilds, 98.
Gutenberg system, 307.

Habitual drunkards in Maryland, 243.
Habitual drunkards, provision for, 240.
Half-orphans, 233.
Halley, Edmund, 88.
Hall, Marshall, 188.
Hart, H. H., 3, 247.
Harvard College, 68.
Harvard Divinity School, 70.
Harwich, J. A., 115.
Hebrew Ladies' Relief Society, 57.
Hebrew Relief Association, 52.
Herald's Free Clothing Fund, 26.
Herschel, John, 88.
Hill, Florence Davenport, 128.
Hirt, Ludwig, 188.
Home for discharged prisoners, 326.
Hospital cottages for children, Baldwinsville, 19.
Hull House, 313.
Hull House district nurse, 341.
Hunter, W. A., 112.
Huntoon, B. B., 3.

Idaho institutions, 261.
Idaho, report from, 238.
Ideal home for discharged prisoners, 326.
Illinois institutions, 261.
Illinois, laws on insanity, 294.
Illinois, report from, 305.
"Imbecile, The Education and Custody of," 168.
"Imitation of Christ, The," 219.
Immigration, problem of, 6.
Importance of instruction in charities, 76.
Indiana institutions, 261.
Indiana, report from, 238.
Indian schools, Washington, 257.
Indian Territory, need of law for, 239.
Indian Territory, report from, 239.
Industrial Christian Alliance, 26.
Industrial depression, 21.
Industrial reformatories for drunkards, 235.
Industrial schools, 156.
Insane, care of, in Utah, improved, 257.
Insane, discussion on, 292.
Insane mothers of imbecile children, 178.
Insane, the, 201.
Insane, trained nurses for, 102.
Inspector of charities, 282.

Institutional life for neglected children, 353.
Institutional newspapers, 161.
"Institutions of Learning, Sociology in," 67.
Institutions teaching sociology, 67.
International Conference of Charities, reports of, 307.
Investigation of charity organization societies, 298
Investigators, paid, 51.
Invitations to Conference: from Connecticut, 297; from Grand Rapids, 297.
Iowa College, 75.
Iowa institutions, 262.

Jackson, T. L., 115.
Jail employments in Maine, 242.
Jail labor, 228.
Jails, a model one, 278.
Jane Club, the, 316.
Japan, nurses' school in, 100.
Johns Hopkins University, 115.
Johnson, Alexander, 7.
Jukes, the, 176.
Jury trial for insane, 294.
Jute mills, Washington, 257.
Jute works for convicts, 233.
"Juvenile Reformatories, Woman's Influence in," 164.

Kansas institutions, 262
Kansas, report from, 240.
Keeley Institute, 240.
Kempis, Thomas à, 219.
Kerlin, Dr. Isaac D., 343.
Kindergarten Association, Denver, 56.
Kindling wood, 43.
Knight, G. H., 182.

Labor Bureau, Cleveland, 52.
Lapeer Home for Feeble-minded, 245.
Laundry for feeble-minded, 311.
Lease system in Tennessee, 254.
Letters: from Governor Rich, 297; from Sam Will John, 230.
List of State institutions, 259.
Loan closets for nurses, 99.
Loaning on pledges, 304.
Louisiana institutions, 262.
Louisiana, report from, 240, 306.
"Louisville, Ky., Winter in," 42.
Lunacy legislation in Illinois, 294.

Maine, report from, 241.
Manitoba institutions, 260.
Manitoba, report from, 233.
"Manual Training for Feeble-minded," 179.
Manual training in reformatories, 160.
Maryland institutions, 263.
Maryland, report from, 242, 306.
Massachusetts institutions, 263.
Massachusetts, report from, 243.
Massachusetts School for Feeble-minded, 182.
Massachusetts settlement law, 108.
Massachusetts system, 131.
Massillon State Hospital, 252.
McCulloch, O. C., 1, 280, 346.
Memphis session, 347.
Michigan Home for Feeble-minded and Epileptics, 244.
Michigan institutions, 263.
Michigan, report from, 244.
Midwinter Fair, California, 289.
Military training, 161.
Miller, Samuel, 225.
Minnesota institutions, 264.
Minnesota, report from, 247.
Minutes and Discussions, 274.
Misdemeanants, 5.
Mission of Dean Peck, Denver, 57.
"Mission Training Schools," 100.
Missouri institutions, 264.
Mitchell, Arthur, 207.
Money-loaners, 53.
Montana institutions, 264.
Moore, Miss Marion I., 303.
Moral training in reformatories, 159.
Morgan College, 75.
Moses, law of, 214.

Nationality of applicants for Cleveland, 53.
National Relief Corps, 342.
Nebraska institutions, 264.
Nebraska, report from, 249.
"Neglected Children, Boarding System for," 137.
Neglected children of Ontario, 354.
Negro's place in social questions, 325.
Nevada institutions, 266.
Nevada Orphans' Home, 250.
Nevada, report from, 249.
Newberry, Mich., Insane Asylum, 245.
New England Kitchen, 316.
New Hampshire institutions, 265.
New Hampshire Orphans' Home, 250.
New Hampshire, report from, 250.
New Jersey institutions, 265.
New Jersey, report from, 250.
New Mexico institutions, 265.
New Orleans Prisoners' Association, 240.
"New York Almshouses, Removal of Children from," 132.
"New York City, Winter in, 1893," 24.
New York epileptic colony, 257.
New York institutions, 265.
New York, report from, 251.
Non-residents in Philadelphia, care of, 66.
North Carolina institutions, 266.
North Carolina, report from, 251.
North Dakota institutions, 266.
North Dakota, report from, 251.
"Number and Cost of State Dependants," 270.
Nurses' homes, 101.
Nurses in Japan, 102.
"Nurses, Mission Training Schools for," 100.
Nurses, Training Schools for, 94.

Ohio Hospital for Epileptics, 252.
Ohio institutions for epileptics, 193.
Ohio institutions, 266.
Ohio, report from, 252.
Ohio State Conference of Charities and Correction, 252.
Oklahoma institutions, 267.
Ontario institutions, 260.
Ontario, neglected children of, 354.
Ontario, report from, 234.
Oregon institutions, 267.
Organized charity, address on, 298.
Osborne, A. E., 195.
"Our Work and the Outlook," 156.
Outdoor relief abolished in Philadelphia, 65
Outdoor relief, cities abolishing it, 114.
"Outdoor Relief: Conditions, Methods, and Statistics," 106.
Outdoor relief in Indiana, 239.
Outdoor relief, "Is it so very bad?" 112.
Outdoor relief, statistics of, 117.
Overseers of Boston, 46.

Paine fellowship, Harvard, 70.
Paine, Robert Treat, 345.
Palmer, A. W., 115.
Pardons, Board of, 236.
Parker, Miss Sarah, 343.
Parlor conferences, 248.
Parlor meetings, 301.
Parole release, 240.
Patten, C. M., 115.

Pauper children, systems of caring for, 126.
Pawnbrokers, 304
Pay for street-cleaning work, Philadelphia, 60.
Peabody, F. G., 70, 72, 73.
Penal institutions, by States, 259.
Penitentiary, self-supporting, 254.
Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society, 130, 137.
Pennsylvania institutions, 267.
Pennsylvania, report from, 253.
Penny savings-banks, 300.
People's Tabernacle, Denver, 57.
Percentage of feeble-minded capable of self-support, 309, 310, 311.
Permanency of results in charity organization society work, 300.
Permanent secretary, 7.
Pestalozzi, 167.
Peterson, Frederick, 190.
Petty crimes committed to secure winter quarters, 249.
Philadelphia, care of non-residents, 66
Philadelphia, Charity Organization Society, 58.
"Philadelphia, how it dealt with Distress in Winter of 1893," 63.
Philadelphia, Insane Hospital of, 102.
"Pittsburg, Winter in," 36.
Placing-out system, 130.
"Plan in Denver," 55.
Police, used in distributing supplies, 46.
Politics and charity, 4.
Politics in State Boards, 282.
Polk, Penn., Asylum for Feeble-minded, 253.
Poor laws of England, 107.
Portland, Me., State School for Deaf-mutes, 241.
President's Address, 1.
Price of board for children, 142.
Prison building in Alabama, 231.
Prisoners' Aid Association, Canada, 235.
Prisoners' Aid Association, Maryland, 242.
Prison labor, limitation of, 247
Private corporations, advantages of, in caring for children, 354.
Private institutions for children, 233.
Problem of providing work, 49.
Proceedings, distribution of, 8.
Protection of children, act for, 235
Provident Association, St. Louis, 116.
Provident Loan Society, 303.
Provincial government grants, 234
"Provision for Epileptics," 188
Pruyn, John V. L., 346.
Public Relief, 106

Quarrying stone for prisoners, 250.

Radcliffe College, 343.
"Randall's Army," 71.
Reading-room, Utah, 256.
Red Cross Society, 28, 97.
Reformatories, 149.
Reformatory for women in Manitoba, 233: in Ontario, 234.
Reformatory institutions, by States, 259.
Registration of charity organization societies, 299.
Relation of charities to sociology, 73
Relief nurses, 341.
Relief supplies, 52.
Relief work committees, 25.
"Removal of Children from Almshouses," 119
Reports: from Alabama, 229; from Alaska, 232; from California, 233; from Colorado, 235; from Connecticut, 236; from Delaware, 238; from Idaho, 238; from Indiana, 238; from Indian Territory, 239; from Kansas, 240; from Louisiana, 240, 306 from Maine, 241; from Manitoba, 233; from Maryland, 242, 306; from Massachusetts, 243; from Michigan, 244; from Minnesota, 247; from Nebraska, 249; from Nevada, 249; from New Hampshire, 250; from Illinois, 305; from New Jersey, 250; from New York, 251; from North Carolina, 251; from North Dakota, 251; from Ohio, 252; from Ontario, 234; from Pennsylvania, 253; from Rhode Island, 253; from South Carolina, 254; from South Dakota, 254; from Tennessee, 254; from Texas, 255; from Utah, 255; from Washington, 257; from West Virginia, 257; from Wisconsin, 258; from Wyoming, 258
Reports from States, 226.
Reports: of Charity Organization, 19; of committee on badges, 307; of special committee on outdoor alms, Hartford, 112; of committee on report from States, 226; of committee on time and place, 304.
Rescue Mission, Utah, 456.
Resolutions: on soldiers' homes, 291; on memorials, 292; on permanent committee on reports from States, 308; on State Conferences of Charities and Correction, 323; with reference to Professor Henderson's statistics, 324; to hold session in Memphis, 326; memorial, 343; of thanks, 344; on deserted wives and unmarried mothers, 352.
Rhode Island institutions, 268.
Rule II., amendment of, 278.

Sairey Gamps of insane hospitals, 105.
Salter, William M., 58.
Salvage Bureau, 31, 32.
Sanborn, F. B., 346.
Sectional Meeting, 348.
Secretary's report, 264.
Segregate system for insane, 295.
Senile dementia, 294.
Sermon, 214.
Session in Memphis, 347.
Sessions: first, 274; second, 278; third, 287; fourth, 291; fifth, 297; sixth, 305; seventh 313, eighth, 324; ninth, 324; tenth, 326; eleventh, 333; at Memphis, 347
Settlement law in Massachusetts, 108.
Shelley, quotation from, 213.
Shurtleff, Hiram S., 343.
Sitka, jail in, 233.
6-15-99 Club, 26
"Slum investigations," 318.
Smith College, 75.
Smith, S. G., 32.
Sociology, 67.
Sociology, study of, 4; in institutions of learning, 67; institutions teaching, 67; consensus of views on, 71; courses in, 71; in relation to charity 73; importance of, 74; reasons for study of, 75; time necessary to study, 76; definition of, 77; statistics of instruction in, 80.
Sociological laboratory, a, 313.
Social Science Association, 3.
"Social Science, Relation of Statistics to," 86.
Social settlements, 313.
Soldiers' homes, 291.
Sonyea colony, 197.
Soup-house, Utah, 256
South Carolina institutions, 268.
South Carolina, report from, 254.
South Dakota, report from, 254.
Spencer, Herbert, 87.
Spigner, Ala., penitentiary, 232.
Starr, M. E., 118.
"State Boards of Charities," 9
State Boards: value of, 9; duties of, 13; States having them, 16; discussion on, 278.
State Care Act, 292.
"State Care for Dependent Children, 146
State institutions, list of, 259.
"St. Paul, Winter's Work in," 30.
"State Policy in Care of Insane," 17.
State prisoners on farms, 355.

"State Schools, General Culture in," 149.
State system of caring for children, 129.
"State, the, Duty to Insane," 201.
States having largest number of children in almshouses, 125.
States not having reformatory institutions, 162.
Statistics: of instruction in sociology, 80; in relation to social science, 86; of outdoor relief, 106, 117.
Stenographers, value of, 47.
Stereopticon views, 326, 347.
Street beggars, 35.
Street-cleaning, Philadelphia, 59.
Street work, Utah, 256.
Students demand sociological teaching, 78.
Sufferings of poor on account of industrial depression, 21.
Sutton, Sir Thomas, 224.
Sweat-shop law, Illinois, 317.
"Sweating system," 242.

Tammany District Associations, 303.
Tammany Hall Fund, 26, 29.
Telegram from Denver, 287.
Temporary homes for children, 129.
Tennessee, report from, 254.
Tenth census, 110.
"Terms for Placing Children in Families," 140.
Texas institutions, 268.
Texas, report from, 255.
"The Moral Imbecile," 310.
Tobacco in reformatories, 151.
Toledo asylum, 295.
Trades-union, 317.
Trade teaching in reformatories, 159.
Trained investigators, 48.
"Trained Nurses for Insane," 102.
Training of children for homes, 144.
Training Schools for Nurses, 94.
Tramps, drawn by emergency funds, 27.
Tramp prisoners, 243.
Tramps reduced 90 per cent., 35.
Transportation for poor persons, 66.
Treasurer's statement, 356.
Tribune (New York) Coal and Food Fund, 26.
Tribune (St. Paul) Coal and Food Fund, 29.
Tulare University, 68.

Underground jails, 248.
"Unemployed Labor, Experiment in Utilizing," 58.
Union of rich and poor in work, 54.
Universities: of Chicago, 70; of Missouri, 69; of Pennsylvania, 68; of Vermont, 74; of Wyoming, 76.
University settlements, 320.
Unmarried mothers, 352.
Utah, blind children in, 255.
Utah, report from, 255.
Uzzel, Thomas, 55, 57.

"Value of State Boards," 9.
Vermont institutions, 268.
Visitation of children, California, 290.
Visiting Nurse Association, 340.
Voluntary commitment of insane, 295.
Voorhees, C. H., 115.

Wages, in emergency, 41.
Wages paid to women, 46.
Waif's Home, Louisiana, 306.
Ward Relief Association, 32.
Warrensville, Penn., Hospital for Chronic Insane, 253.
Washington, report from, 257.
Webster, Daniel, home of, 250.
Westphalian Brotherhood, 192
Westphalian Deaconesses, 192.
Westinghouse subscriptions, 38.
West Virginia institutions, 269.
West Virginia, report from, 257.
"What can be done for the Unemployed?" 58.
Whittier, The, 289.
Wilcox, Ansley, 303.
Willard, Frances, 342.
Williams College, 68.
Willis, T. W., 247.
Wilson, W. L., 33.
Wines, F. H., 71, 110, 305.
"Winter in Louisville, Ky.," 42.
"Winter in Philadelphia," 63.
"Winter in Pittsburg," 36.
"Winter's Work in St. Paul," 30.
Wisconsin institutions, 269.
Wisconsin, report from, 258.
"Woman's Influence in Juvenile Reformatories," 164.
Women's colleges, 84.
Women on State Boards, 279, 281, 282, 284, 305.
Woman's Christian Association, Visiting Committee, Denver, 57.
Workhouses, 236.
"Work in Charleston," 34.
World's Bread Fund, 26.
World's Fair, Chicago, 115.
Wright, Carroll D., 22, 91, 107, 111.
Wyoming institutions, 269.
Wyoming, report from, 258.

Yale University, 68.
Young, J. A., 115.

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